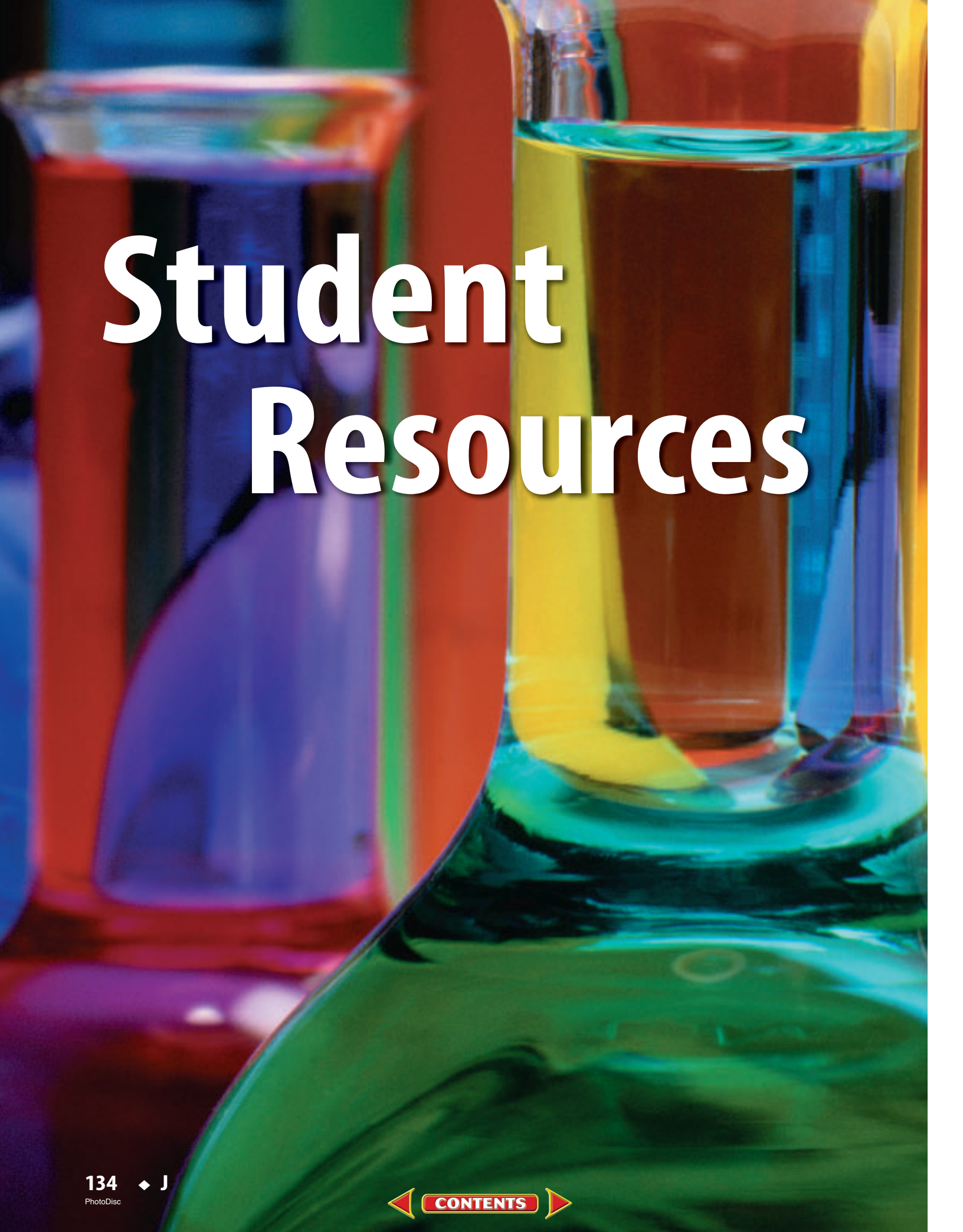


The background of the page is a close-up photograph of laboratory glassware. In the foreground, a large Erlenmeyer flask is partially visible, containing a bright yellow liquid. Behind it, a graduated cylinder holds a reddish-brown liquid. To the left, another graduated cylinder contains a blue liquid. The glassware is set against a dark, out-of-focus background, and the lighting creates highlights and reflections on the glass surfaces.

Student Resources

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Scientific Methods

Scientists use an orderly approach called the scientific method to solve problems. This includes organizing and recording data so others can understand them. Scientists use many variations in this method when they solve problems.

Identify a Question

The first step in a scientific investigation or experiment is to identify a question to be answered or a problem to be solved. For example, you might ask which gasoline is the most efficient.

Gather and Organize Information

After you have identified your question, begin gathering and organizing information. There are many ways to gather information, such as researching in a library, interviewing those knowledgeable about the subject, testing and working in the laboratory and field. Fieldwork is investigations and observations done outside of a laboratory.

Researching Information Before moving in a new direction, it is important to gather the information that already is known about the subject. Start by asking yourself questions to determine exactly what you need to know. Then you will look for the information in various reference sources, like the student is doing in **Figure 1**. Some sources may include textbooks, encyclopedias, government documents, professional journals, science magazines, and the Internet. Always list the sources of your information.



Figure 1 The Internet can be a valuable research tool.

Evaluate Sources of Information Not all sources of information are reliable. You should evaluate all of your sources of information, and use only those you know to be dependable. For example, if you are researching ways to make homes more energy efficient, a site written by the U.S. Department of Energy would be more reliable than a site written by a company that is trying to sell a new type of weatherproofing material. Also, remember that research always is changing. Consult the most current resources available to you. For example, a 1985 resource about saving energy would not reflect the most recent findings.

Sometimes scientists use data that they did not collect themselves, or conclusions drawn by other researchers. This data must be evaluated carefully. Ask questions about how the data were obtained, if the investigation was carried out properly, and if it has been duplicated exactly with the same results. Would you reach the same conclusion from the data? Only when you have confidence in the data can you believe it is true and feel comfortable using it.

Interpret Scientific Illustrations As you research a topic in science, you will see drawings, diagrams, and photographs to help you understand what you read. Some illustrations are included to help you understand an idea that you can't see easily by yourself, like the tiny particles in an atom in **Figure 2**. A drawing helps many people to remember details more easily and provides examples that clarify difficult concepts or give additional information about the topic you are studying. Most illustrations have labels or a caption to identify or to provide more information.

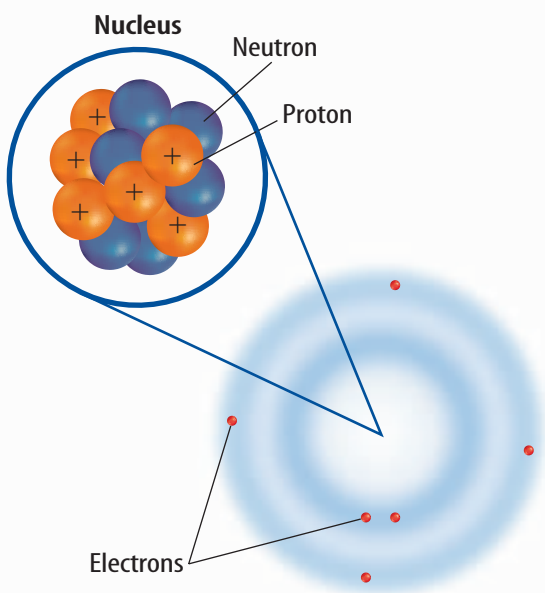


Figure 2 This drawing shows an atom of carbon with its six protons, six neutrons, and six electrons.

Concept Maps One way to organize data is to draw a diagram that shows relationships among ideas (or concepts). A concept map can help make the meanings of ideas and terms more clear, and help you understand and remember what you are studying. Concept maps are useful for breaking large concepts down into smaller parts, making learning easier.

Network Tree A type of concept map that not only shows a relationship, but how the concepts are related is a network tree, shown in **Figure 3**. In a network tree, the words are written in the ovals, while the description of the type of relationship is written across the connecting lines.

When constructing a network tree, write down the topic and all major topics on separate pieces of paper or notecards. Then arrange them in order from general to specific. Branch the related concepts from the major concept and describe the relationship on the connecting line. Continue to more specific concepts until finished.

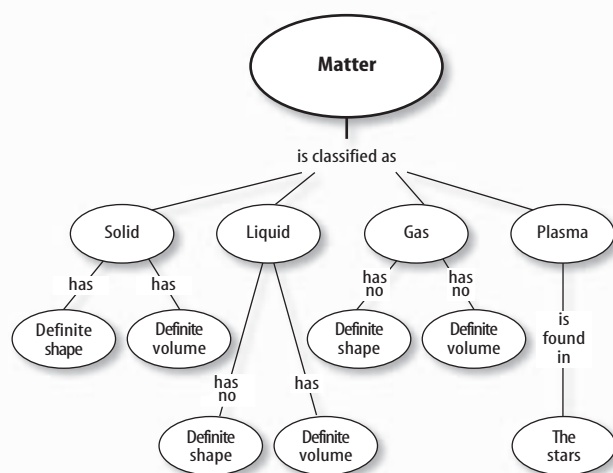


Figure 3 A network tree shows how concepts or objects are related.

Events Chain Another type of concept map is an events chain. Sometimes called a flow chart, it models the order or sequence of items. An events chain can be used to describe a sequence of events, the steps in a procedure, or the stages of a process.

When making an events chain, first find the one event that starts the chain. This event is called the initiating event. Then, find the next event and continue until the outcome is reached, as shown in **Figure 4**.

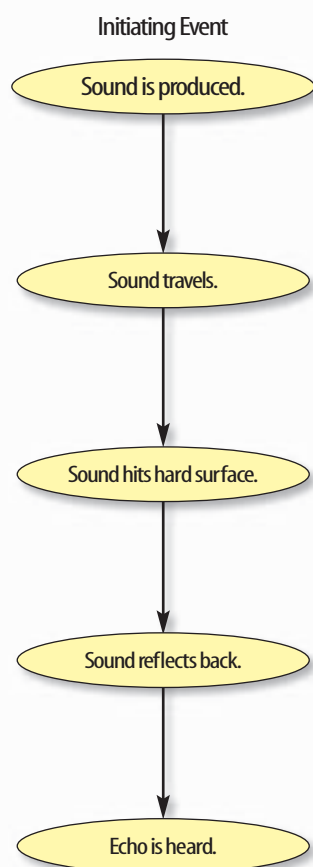


Figure 4 Events-chain concept maps show the order of steps in a process or event. This concept map shows how a sound makes an echo.

Cycle Map A specific type of events chain is a cycle map. It is used when the series of events do not produce a final outcome, but instead relate back to the beginning event, such as in **Figure 5**. Therefore, the cycle repeats itself.

To make a cycle map, first decide what event is the beginning event. This is also called the initiating event. Then list the next events in the order that they occur, with the last event relating back to the initiating event. Words can be written between the events that describe what happens from one event to the next. The number of events in a cycle map can vary, but usually contain three or more events.

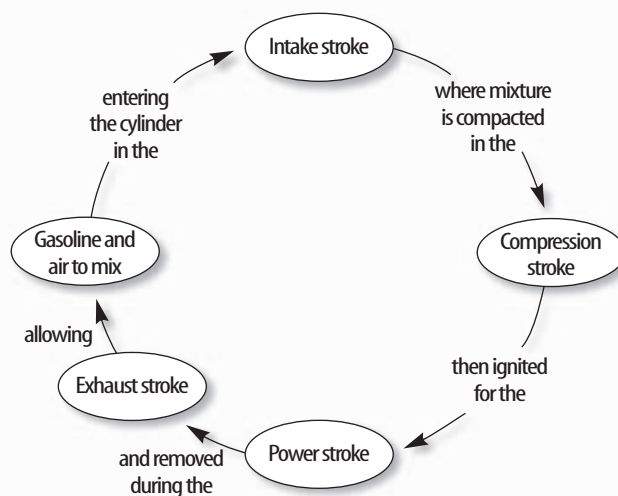


Figure 5 A cycle map shows events that occur in a cycle.

Spider Map A type of concept map that you can use for brainstorming is the spider map. When you have a central idea, you might find that you have a jumble of ideas that relate to it but are not necessarily clearly related to each other. The spider map on sound in **Figure 6** shows that if you write these ideas outside the main concept, then you can begin to separate and group unrelated terms so they become more useful.

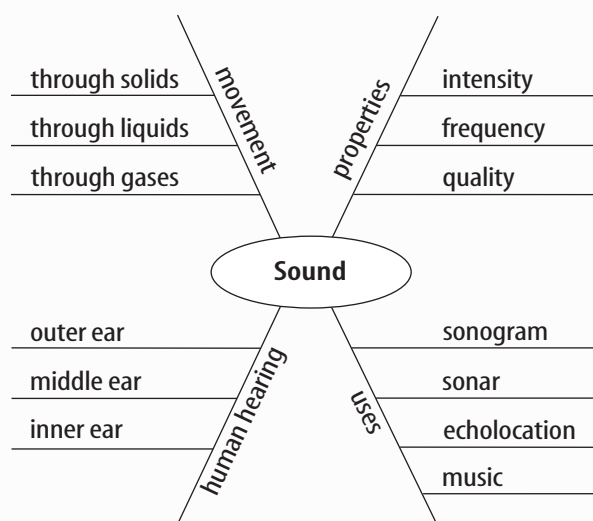


Figure 6 A spider map allows you to list ideas that relate to a central topic but not necessarily to one another.

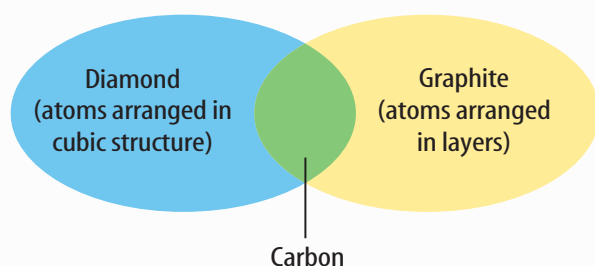


Figure 7 This Venn diagram compares and contrasts two substances made from carbon.

Venn Diagram To illustrate how two subjects compare and contrast you can use a Venn diagram. You can see the characteristics that the subjects have in common and those that they do not, shown in **Figure 7**.

To create a Venn diagram, draw two overlapping ovals that are big enough to write in. List the characteristics unique to one subject in one oval, and the characteristics of the other subject in the other oval. The characteristics in common are listed in the overlapping section.

Make and Use Tables One way to organize information so it is easier to understand is to use a table. Tables can contain numbers, words, or both.

To make a table, list the items to be compared in the first column and the characteristics to be compared in the first row. The title should clearly indicate the content of the table, and the column or row heads should be clear. Notice that in **Table 1** the units are included.

Table 1 Recyclables Collected During Week			
Day of Week	Paper (kg)	Aluminum (kg)	Glass (kg)
Monday	5.0	4.0	12.0
Wednesday	4.0	1.0	10.0
Friday	2.5	2.0	10.0

Make a Model One way to help you better understand the parts of a structure, the way a process works, or to show things too large or small for viewing is to make a model. For example, an atomic model made of a plastic-ball nucleus and pipe-cleaner electron shells can help you visualize how the parts of an atom relate to each other. Other types of models can be devised on a computer or represented by equations.

Form a Hypothesis

A possible explanation based on previous knowledge and observations is called a hypothesis. After researching gasoline types and recalling previous experiences in your family's car you form a hypothesis—our car runs more efficiently because we use premium gasoline. To be valid, a hypothesis has to be something you can test by using an investigation.

Predict When you apply a hypothesis to a specific situation, you predict something about that situation. A prediction makes a statement in advance, based on prior observation, experience, or scientific reasoning. People use predictions to make everyday decisions. Scientists test predictions by performing investigations. Based on previous observations and experiences, you might form a prediction that cars are more efficient with premium gasoline. The prediction can be tested in an investigation.

Design an Experiment A scientist needs to make many decisions before beginning an investigation. Some of these include: how to carry out the investigation, what steps to follow, how to record the data, and how the investigation will answer the question. It also is important to address any safety concerns.

Science Skill Handbook

Test the Hypothesis

Now that you have formed your hypothesis, you need to test it. Using an investigation, you will make observations and collect data, or information. This data might either support or not support your hypothesis. Scientists collect and organize data as numbers and descriptions.

Follow a Procedure In order to know what materials to use, as well as how and in what order to use them, you must follow a procedure. **Figure 8** shows a procedure you might follow to test your hypothesis.

Procedure

1. Use regular gasoline for two weeks.
2. Record the number of kilometers between fill-ups and the amount of gasoline used.
3. Switch to premium gasoline for two weeks.
4. Record the number of kilometers between fill-ups and the amount of gasoline used.

Figure 8 A procedure tells you what to do step by step.

Identify and Manipulate Variables and Controls In any experiment, it is important to keep everything the same except for the item you are testing. The one factor you change is called the independent variable. The change that results is the dependent variable. Make sure you have only one independent variable, to assure yourself of the cause of the changes you observe in the dependent variable. For example, in your gasoline experiment the type of fuel is the independent variable. The dependent variable is the efficiency.

Many experiments also have a control—an individual instance or experimental subject for which the independent variable is not changed. You can then compare the test results to the control results. To design a control you can have two cars of the same type. The control car uses regular gasoline for four weeks. After you are done with the test, you can compare the experimental results to the control results.

Collect Data

Whether you are carrying out an investigation or a short observational experiment, you will collect data, as shown in **Figure 9**. Scientists collect data as numbers and descriptions and organize it in specific ways.

Observe Scientists observe items and events, then record what they see. When they use only words to describe an observation, it is called qualitative data. Scientists' observations also can describe how much there is of something. These observations use numbers, as well as words, in the description and are called quantitative data. For example, if a sample of the element gold is described as being "shiny and very dense" the data are qualitative. Quantitative data on this sample of gold might include "a mass of 30 g and a density of 19.3 g/cm^3 ."



Figure 9 Collecting data is one way to gather information directly.



Figure 10 Record data neatly and clearly so it is easy to understand.

When you make observations you should examine the entire object or situation first, and then look carefully for details. It is important to record observations accurately and completely. Always record your notes immediately as you make them, so you do not miss details or make a mistake when recording results from memory. Never put unidentified observations on scraps of paper. Instead they should be recorded in a notebook, like the one in **Figure 10**. Write your data neatly so you can easily read it later. At each point in the experiment, record your observations and label them. That way, you will not have to determine what the figures mean when you look at your notes later. Set up any tables that you will need to use ahead of time, so you can record any observations right away. Remember to avoid bias when collecting data by not including personal thoughts when you record observations. Record only what you observe.

Estimate Scientific work also involves estimating. To estimate is to make a judgment about the size or the number of something without measuring or counting. This is important when the number or size of an object or population is too large or too difficult to accurately count or measure.

Sample Scientists may use a sample or a portion of the total number as a type of estimation. To sample is to take a small, representative portion of the objects or organisms of a population for research. By making careful observations or manipulating variables within that portion of the group, information is discovered and conclusions are drawn that might apply to the whole population. A poorly chosen sample can be unrepresentative of the whole. If you were trying to determine the rainfall in an area, it would not be best to take a rainfall sample from under a tree.

Measure You use measurements everyday. Scientists also take measurements when collecting data. When taking measurements, it is important to know how to use measuring tools properly. Accuracy also is important.

Length To measure length, the distance between two points, scientists use meters. Smaller measurements might be measured in centimeters or millimeters.

Length is measured using a metric ruler or meter stick. When using a metric ruler, line up the 0-cm mark with the end of the object being measured and read the number of the unit where the object ends. Look at the metric ruler shown in **Figure 11**. The centimeter lines are the long, numbered lines, and the shorter lines are millimeter lines. In this instance, the length would be 4.50 cm.

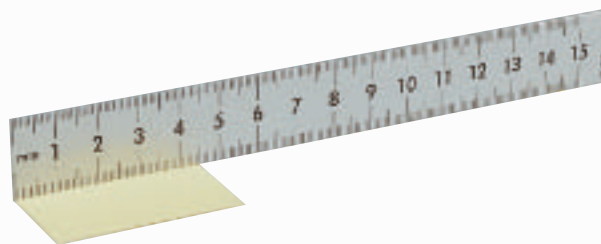


Figure 11 This metric ruler has centimeter and millimeter divisions.

Science Skill Handbook

Mass The SI unit for mass is the kilogram (kg). Scientists can measure mass using units formed by adding metric prefixes to the unit gram (g), such as milligram (mg). To measure mass, you might use a triple-beam balance similar to the one shown in **Figure 12**. The balance has a pan on one side and a set of beams on the other side. Each beam has a rider that slides on the beam.

When using a triple-beam balance, place an object on the pan. Slide the largest rider along its beam until the pointer drops below zero. Then move it back one notch. Repeat the process for each rider proceeding from the larger to smaller until the pointer swings an equal distance above and below the zero point. Sum the masses on each beam to find the mass of the object. Move all riders back to zero when finished.

Instead of putting materials directly on the balance, scientists often take a tare of a container. A tare is the mass of a container into which objects or substances are placed for measuring their masses. To mass objects or substances, find the mass of a clean container. Remove the container from the pan, and place the object or substances in the container. Find the mass of the container with the materials in it. Subtract the mass of the empty container from the mass of the filled container to find the mass of the materials you are using.



Figure 12 A triple-beam balance is used to determine the mass of an object.

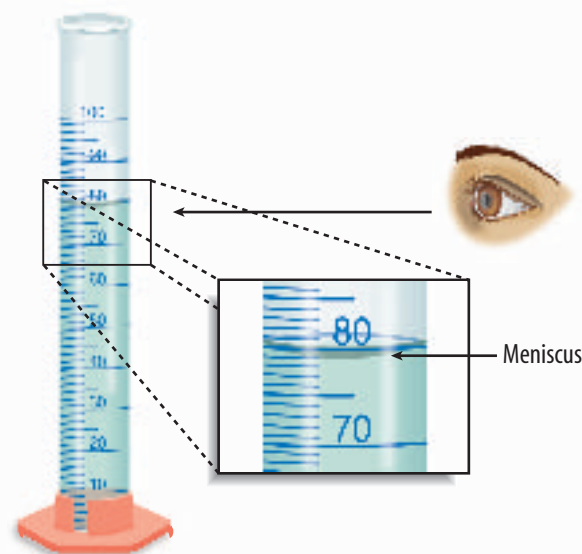


Figure 13 Graduated cylinders measure liquid volume.

Liquid Volume To measure liquids, the unit used is the liter. When a smaller unit is needed, scientists might use a milliliter. Because a milliliter takes up the volume of a cube measuring 1 cm on each side it also can be called a cubic centimeter ($\text{cm}^3 = \text{cm} \times \text{cm} \times \text{cm}$).

You can use beakers and graduated cylinders to measure liquid volume. A graduated cylinder, shown in **Figure 13**, is marked from bottom to top in milliliters. In lab, you might use a 10-mL graduated cylinder or a 100-mL graduated cylinder. When measuring liquids, notice that the liquid has a curved surface. Look at the surface at eye level, and measure the bottom of the curve. This is called the meniscus. The graduated cylinder in **Figure 13** contains 79.0 mL, or 79.0 cm^3 , of a liquid.

Temperature Scientists often measure temperature using the Celsius scale. Pure water has a freezing point of 0°C and boiling point of 100°C . The unit of measurement is degrees Celsius. Two other scales often used are the Fahrenheit and Kelvin scales.



Figure 14 A thermometer measures the temperature of an object.

Scientists use a thermometer to measure temperature. Most thermometers in a laboratory are glass tubes with a bulb at the bottom end containing a liquid such as colored alcohol. The liquid rises or falls with a change in temperature. To read a glass thermometer like the thermometer in **Figure 14**, rotate it slowly until a red line appears. Read the temperature where the red line ends.

Form Operational Definitions An operational definition defines an object by how it functions, works, or behaves. For example, when you are playing hide and seek and a tree is home base, you have created an operational definition for a tree.

Objects can have more than one operational definition. For example, a ruler can be defined as a tool that measures the length of an object (how it is used). It can also be a tool with a series of marks used as a standard when measuring (how it works).

Analyze the Data

To determine the meaning of your observations and investigation results, you will need to look for patterns in the data. Then you must think critically to determine what the data mean. Scientists use several approaches when they analyze the data they have collected and recorded. Each approach is useful for identifying specific patterns.

Interpret Data The word *interpret* means “to explain the meaning of something.” When analyzing data from an experiment, try to find out what the data show. Identify the control group and the test group to see whether or not changes in the independent variable have had an effect. Look for differences in the dependent variable between the control and test groups.

Classify Sorting objects or events into groups based on common features is called classifying. When classifying, first observe the objects or events to be classified. Then select one feature that is shared by some members in the group, but not by all. Place those members that share that feature in a subgroup. You can classify members into smaller and smaller subgroups based on characteristics. Remember that when you classify, you are grouping objects or events for a purpose. Keep your purpose in mind as you select the features to form groups and subgroups.

Compare and Contrast Observations can be analyzed by noting the similarities and differences between two more objects or events that you observe. When you look at objects or events to see how they are similar, you are comparing them. Contrasting is looking for differences in objects or events.

Science Skill Handbook

Recognize Cause and Effect A cause is a reason for an action or condition. The effect is that action or condition. When two events happen together, it is not necessarily true that one event caused the other. Scientists must design a controlled investigation to recognize the exact cause and effect.

Draw Conclusions

When scientists have analyzed the data they collected, they proceed to draw conclusions about the data. These conclusions are sometimes stated in words similar to the hypothesis that you formed earlier. They may confirm a hypothesis, or lead you to a new hypothesis.

Infer Scientists often make inferences based on their observations. An inference is an attempt to explain observations or to indicate a cause. An inference is not a fact, but a logical conclusion that needs further investigation. For example, you may infer that a fire has caused smoke. Until you investigate, however, you do not know for sure.

Apply When you draw a conclusion, you must apply those conclusions to determine whether the data supports the hypothesis. If your data do not support your hypothesis, it does not mean that the hypothesis is wrong. It means only that the result of the investigation did not support the hypothesis. Maybe the experiment needs to be redesigned, or some of the initial observations on which the hypothesis was based were incomplete or biased. Perhaps more observation or research is needed to refine your hypothesis. A successful investigation does not always come out the way you originally predicted.

Avoid Bias Sometimes a scientific investigation involves making judgments. When you make a judgment, you form an opinion. It is important to be honest and not to allow any expectations of results to bias your judgments. This is important throughout the entire investigation, from researching to collecting data to drawing conclusions.

Communicate

The communication of ideas is an important part of the work of scientists. A discovery that is not reported will not advance the scientific community's understanding or knowledge. Communication among scientists also is important as a way of improving their investigations.

Scientists communicate in many ways, from writing articles in journals and magazines that explain their investigations and experiments, to announcing important discoveries on television and radio. Scientists also share ideas with colleagues on the Internet or present them as lectures, like the student is doing in **Figure 15**.



Figure 15 A student communicates to his peers about his investigation.

SAFETY SYMBOLS

SAFETY SYMBOLS		HAZARD	EXAMPLES	PRECAUTION	REMEDY
DISPOSAL		Special disposal procedures need to be followed.	certain chemicals, living organisms	Do not dispose of these materials in the sink or trash can.	Dispose of wastes as directed by your teacher.
BIOLOGICAL		Organisms or other biological materials that might be harmful to humans	bacteria, fungi, blood, unpreserved tissues, plant materials	Avoid skin contact with these materials. Wear mask or gloves.	Notify your teacher if you suspect contact with material. Wash hands thoroughly.
EXTREME TEMPERATURE		Objects that can burn skin by being too cold or too hot	boiling liquids, hot plates, dry ice, liquid nitrogen	Use proper protection when handling.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
SHARP OBJECT		Use of tools or glassware that can easily puncture or slice skin	razor blades, pins, scalpels, pointed tools, dissecting probes, broken glass	Practice common-sense behavior and follow guidelines for use of the tool.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
FUME		Possible danger to respiratory tract from fumes	ammonia, acetone, nail polish remover, heated sulfur, moth balls	Make sure there is good ventilation. Never smell fumes directly. Wear a mask.	Leave foul area and notify your teacher immediately.
ELECTRICAL		Possible danger from electrical shock or burn	improper grounding, liquid spills, short circuits, exposed wires	Double-check setup with teacher. Check condition of wires and apparatus.	Do not attempt to fix electrical problems. Notify your teacher immediately.
IRRITANT		Substances that can irritate the skin or mucous membranes of the respiratory tract	pollen, moth balls, steel wool, fiberglass, potassium permanganate	Wear dust mask and gloves. Practice extra care when handling these materials.	Go to your teacher for first aid.
CHEMICAL		Chemicals can react with and destroy tissue and other materials	bleaches such as hydrogen peroxide; acids such as sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid; bases such as ammonia, sodium hydroxide	Wear goggles, gloves, and an apron.	Immediately flush the affected area with water and notify your teacher.
TOXIC		Substance may be poisonous if touched, inhaled, or swallowed.	mercury, many metal compounds, iodine, poinsettia plant parts	Follow your teacher's instructions.	Always wash hands thoroughly after use. Go to your teacher for first aid.
FLAMMABLE		Flammable chemicals may be ignited by open flame, spark, or exposed heat.	alcohol, kerosene, potassium permanganate	Avoid open flames and heat when using flammable chemicals.	Notify your teacher immediately. Use fire safety equipment if applicable.
OPEN FLAME		Open flame in use, may cause fire.	hair, clothing, paper, synthetic materials	Tie back hair and loose clothing. Follow teacher's instruction on lighting and extinguishing flames.	Notify your teacher immediately. Use fire safety equipment if applicable.
	Eye Safety Proper eye protection should be worn at all times by anyone performing or observing science activities.		Clothing Protection This symbol appears when substances could stain or burn clothing.		Animal Safety This symbol appears when safety of animals and students must be ensured.
					Handwashing After the lab, wash hands with soap and water before removing goggles.

Safety in the Science Laboratory

The science laboratory is a safe place to work if you follow standard safety procedures. Being responsible for your own safety helps to make the entire laboratory a safer place for everyone. When performing any lab, read and apply the caution statements and safety symbol listed at the beginning of the lab.

General Safety Rules

1. Obtain your teacher's permission to begin all investigations and use laboratory equipment.
2. Study the procedure. Ask your teacher any questions. Be sure you understand safety symbols shown on the page.
3. Notify your teacher about allergies or other health conditions which can affect your participation in a lab.
4. Learn and follow use and safety procedures for your equipment. If unsure, ask your teacher.



5. Never eat, drink, chew gum, apply cosmetics, or do any personal grooming in the lab. Never use lab glassware as food or drink containers. Keep your hands away from your face and mouth.
6. Know the location and proper use of the safety shower, eye wash, fire blanket, and fire alarm.

Prevent Accidents

1. Use the safety equipment provided to you. Goggles and a safety apron should be worn during investigations.
2. Do NOT use hair spray, mousse, or other flammable hair products. Tie back long hair and tie down loose clothing.
3. Do NOT wear sandals or other open-toed shoes in the lab.
4. Remove jewelry on hands and wrists. Loose jewelry, such as chains and long necklaces, should be removed to prevent them from getting caught in equipment.
5. Do not taste any substances or draw any material into a tube with your mouth.
6. Proper behavior is expected in the lab. Practical jokes and fooling around can lead to accidents and injury.
7. Keep your work area uncluttered.

Laboratory Work

1. Collect and carry all equipment and materials to your work area before beginning a lab.
2. Remain in your own work area unless given permission by your teacher to leave it.



3. Always slant test tubes away from yourself and others when heating them, adding substances to them, or rinsing them.
4. If instructed to smell a substance in a container, hold the container a short distance away and fan vapors towards your nose.
5. Do NOT substitute other chemicals/substances for those in the materials list unless instructed to do so by your teacher.
6. Do NOT take any materials or chemicals outside of the laboratory.
7. Stay out of storage areas unless instructed to be there and supervised by your teacher.

Laboratory Cleanup

1. Turn off all burners, water, and gas, and disconnect all electrical devices.
2. Clean all pieces of equipment and return all materials to their proper places.

3. Dispose of chemicals and other materials as directed by your teacher. Place broken glass and solid substances in the proper containers. Never discard materials in the sink.
4. Clean your work area.
5. Wash your hands with soap and water thoroughly BEFORE removing your goggles.

Emergencies

1. Report any fire, electrical shock, glassware breakage, spill, or injury, no matter how small, to your teacher immediately. Follow his or her instructions.
2. If your clothing should catch fire, STOP, DROP, and ROLL. If possible, smother it with the fire blanket or get under a safety shower. NEVER RUN.
3. If a fire should occur, turn off all gas and leave the room according to established procedures.
4. In most instances, your teacher will clean up spills. Do NOT attempt to clean up spills unless you are given permission and instructions to do so.
5. If chemicals come into contact with your eyes or skin, notify your teacher immediately. Use the eyewash or flush your skin or eyes with large quantities of water.
6. The fire extinguisher and first-aid kit should only be used by your teacher unless it is an extreme emergency and you have been given permission.
7. If someone is injured or becomes ill, only a professional medical provider or someone certified in first aid should perform first-aid procedures.

EXTRA Labs

From Your Kitchen, Junk Drawer, or Yard

1 Space Probe Flights

Real-World Question

How can we compare the distances traveled by space probes to their destinations?

Possible Materials

- polystyrene balls (5)
- toothpicks (5)
- small stick-on labels (5)
- tennis ball
- meterstick

Procedure

1. Write the names *Mariner 2*, *Pioneer 10*, *Mariner 10*, *Viking 1*, and *Voyager 2* on the five labels and stick each label on a toothpick. Stick a labeled toothpick into each of the polystyrene balls to represent these five United States space probes.

2. Place the tennis ball in an open space such as a basketball court or field.
3. Measure a distance of 0.42 m from the tennis ball and place the *Mariner 2* probe in that spot. Place the *Pioneer 10* probe 6.28 m away, the *Mariner 10* probe 0.92 m from the ball, the *Viking 1* probe 0.78 m away, and the *Voyager 2* probe 43.47 m from the tennis ball.

Conclude and Apply

1. Create a timeline showing the year each probe was launched and its destination and relate this information to the distance traveled.
2. Mercury is 58 million km from the sun and Earth is 150 million km. Use this information to calculate the scale used for this activity.

2 Creating Craters

Real-World Question

Why does the Moon have craters?

Possible Materials

- drink mix or powdered baby formula
- black pepper or paprika
- large, deep cooking tray or large bowl
- marbles
- small, round candies
- aquarium gravel
- tweezers
- bag of cotton balls

Procedure

1. Pour a 3-cm layer of powder over the bottom of a large, deep cooking tray.
2. Sprinkle a fine layer of black pepper over the powder.
3. Lay a 2–3 cm layer of cotton over half of the powder.

4. Drop marbles and other small objects into the powder not covered by the cotton. Carefully remove the objects with tweezers and observe the craters and impact patterns they make.
5. Drop objects on to the half of the tray covered by cotton.
6. Remove the objects and cotton and observe the marks made by objects in the powder.

Conclude and Apply

1. Compare the impacts made by the objects in the powder not covered by cotton with the impacts in the powder covered by cotton.
2. Infer why the Moon has many craters on its surface but Earth does not.

3 Many Moons

Real-World Question

How do the number of moons of the nine planets compare?

Possible Materials

- golf balls (5)
- softballs (4)
- colored construction paper
- hole puncher
- pennies (10)
- quarters (8)
- meterstick

Procedure

1. Lay the golf balls and softballs on the floor in a row to represent the nine planets. The golf balls should represent the terrestrial planets and the softballs the gas planets.
2. Next to the golf ball representing Earth place one quarter. A quarter represents a moon with a diameter greater than 1,000 km. Research which planets have moons this size and place quarters next to them.
3. Use pennies to represent moons with a diameter between 200–1,000 km. Place pennies next to the planets with moons this size.
4. Use a hole punch to punch out holes from colored construction paper. These holes represent moons smaller than 200 km in diameter. Research which planets have moons this size and place the holes next to them.

Conclude and Apply

1. Infer why terrestrial planets have fewer moons than gas planets.
2. Infer why astronomers do not believe all the moons in the solar system have been discovered.

4 Big Stars

Real-World Question

How does the size of Earth compare to the size of stars?

Possible Materials

- metric ruler
- meterstick
- tape measure
- masking tape
- white paper
- black marker

Procedure

1. Tape a sheet of white paper to the floor.
2. Draw a dot in the center to the paper. Measure a 1-mm distance from the dot and draw a second dot. This distance represents the diameter of Earth.
3. Measure a distance of 10.9 cm from the first dot and draw a third dot. This distance represents the diameter of the Sun.
4. Measure a distance of 5 m from the first dot and mark the location on the floor with a piece of masking tape. This distance represents the average diameter of a red giant star.
5. Measure a distance of 30 m from the first dot and mark the location on the floor with a piece of masking tape. This distance represents the diameter of the supergiant star Antares.

Conclude and Apply

1. The diameter of Earth is 12,756 km. What is the diameter of the Sun?
2. What is the diameter of an average red giant?

Computer Skills

People who study science rely on computers, like the one in **Figure 16**, to record and store data and to analyze results from investigations. Whether you work in a laboratory or just need to write a lab report with tables, good computer skills are a necessity.

Using the computer comes with responsibility. Issues of ownership, security, and privacy can arise. Remember, if you did not author the information you are using, you must provide a source for your information. Also, anything on a computer can be accessed by others. Do not put anything on the computer that you would not want everyone to know. To add more security to your work, use a password.

Use a Word Processing Program

A computer program that allows you to type your information, change it as many times as you need to, and then print it out is called a word processing program. Word processing programs also can be used to make tables.



Figure 16 A computer will make reports neater and more professional looking.

Learn the Skill To start your word processing program, a blank document, sometimes called “Document 1,” appears on the screen. To begin, start typing. To create a new document, click the *New* button on the standard tool bar. These tips will help you format the document.

- The program will automatically move to the next line; press *Enter* if you wish to start a new paragraph.
- Symbols, called non-printing characters, can be hidden by clicking the *Show/Hide* button on your toolbar.
- To insert text, move the cursor to the point where you want the insertion to go, click on the mouse once, and type the text.
- To move several lines of text, select the text and click the *Cut* button on your toolbar. Then position your cursor in the location that you want to move the cut text and click *Paste*. If you move to the wrong place, click *Undo*.
- The spell check feature does not catch words that are misspelled to look like other words, like “cold” instead of “gold.” Always reread your document to catch all spelling mistakes.
- To learn about other word processing methods, read the user’s manual or click on the *Help* button.
- You can integrate databases, graphics, and spreadsheets into documents by copying from another program and pasting it into your document, or by using desktop publishing (DTP). DTP software allows you to put text and graphics together to finish your document with a professional look. This software varies in how it is used and its capabilities.

Use a Database

A collection of facts stored in a computer and sorted into different fields is called a database. A database can be reorganized in any way that suits your needs.

Learn the Skill A computer program that allows you to create your own database is a database management system (DBMS). It allows you to add, delete, or change information. Take time to get to know the features of your database software.

- Determine what facts you would like to include and research to collect your information.
- Determine how you want to organize the information.
- Follow the instructions for your particular DBMS to set up fields. Then enter each item of data in the appropriate field.
- Follow the instructions to sort the information in order of importance.
- Evaluate the information in your database, and add, delete, or change as necessary.

Use the Internet

The Internet is a global network of computers where information is stored and shared. To use the Internet, like the students in **Figure 17**, you need a modem to connect your computer to a phone line and an Internet Service Provider account.

Learn the Skill To access internet sites and information, use a “Web browser,” which lets you view and explore pages on the World Wide Web. Each page is its own site, and each site has its own address, called a URL. Once you have found a Web browser, follow these steps for a search (this also is how you search a database).



Figure 17 The Internet allows you to search a global network for a variety of information.

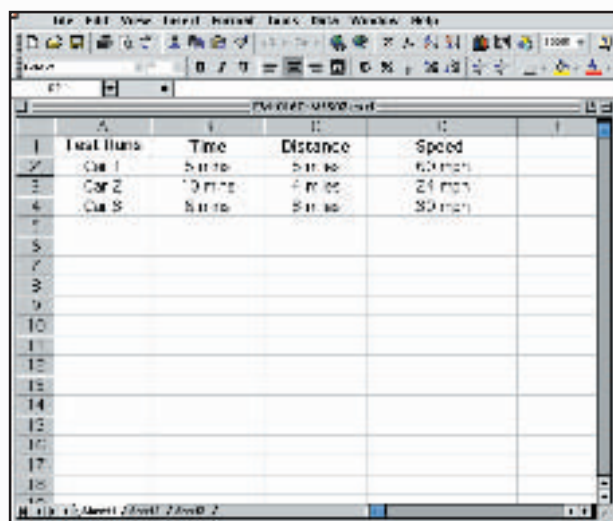
- Be as specific as possible. If you know you want to research “gold,” don’t type in “elements.” Keep narrowing your search until you find what you want.
- Web sites that end in *.com* are commercial Web sites; *.org*, *.edu*, and *.gov* are non-profit, educational, or government Web sites.
- Electronic encyclopedias, almanacs, indexes, and catalogs will help locate and select relevant information.
- Develop a “home page” with relative ease. When developing a Web site, NEVER post pictures or disclose personal information such as location, names, or phone numbers. Your school or community usually can host your Web site. A basic understanding of HTML (hypertext mark-up language), the language of Web sites, is necessary. Software that creates HTML code is called authoring software, and can be downloaded free from many Web sites. This software allows text and pictures to be arranged as the software is writing the HTML code.

Use a Spreadsheet

A spreadsheet, shown in **Figure 18**, can perform mathematical functions with any data arranged in columns and rows. By entering a simple equation into a cell, the program can perform operations in specific cells, rows, or columns.

Learn the Skill Each column (vertical) is assigned a letter, and each row (horizontal) is assigned a number. Each point where a row and column intersect is called a cell, and is labeled according to where it is located—Column A, Row 1 (A1).

- Decide how to organize the data, and enter it in the correct row or column.
- Spreadsheets can use standard formulas or formulas can be customized to calculate cells.
- To make a change, click on a cell to make it activate, and enter the edited data or formula.
- Spreadsheets also can display your results in graphs. Choose the style of graph that best represents the data.



	A	B	C	D
1	Test Runs	Time	Distance	Speed
2	Car 1	5 min	5 miles	60 mph
3	Car 2	10 min	4 miles	24 mph
4	Car 3	8 min	8 miles	60 mph
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				

Figure 18 A spreadsheet allows you to perform mathematical operations on your data.

Use Graphics Software

Adding pictures, called graphics, to your documents is one way to make your documents more meaningful and exciting. This software adds, edits, and even constructs graphics. There is a variety of graphics software programs. The tools used for drawing can be a mouse, keyboard, or other specialized devices. Some graphics programs are simple. Others are complicated, called computer-aided design (CAD) software.

Learn the Skill It is important to have an understanding of the graphics software being used before starting. The better the software is understood, the better the results. The graphics can be placed in a word-processing document.

- Clip art can be found on a variety of internet sites, and on CDs. These images can be copied and pasted into your document.
- When beginning, try editing existing drawings, then work up to creating drawings.
- The images are made of tiny rectangles of color called pixels. Each pixel can be altered.
- Digital photography is another way to add images. The photographs in the memory of a digital camera can be downloaded into a computer, then edited and added to the document.
- Graphics software also can allow animation. The software allows drawings to have the appearance of movement by connecting basic drawings automatically. This is called in-betweening, or tweening.
- Remember to save often.

Presentation Skills

Develop Multimedia Presentations

Most presentations are more dynamic if they include diagrams, photographs, videos, or sound recordings, like the one shown in **Figure 19**. A multimedia presentation involves using stereos, overhead projectors, televisions, computers, and more.

Learn the Skill Decide the main points of your presentation, and what types of media would best illustrate those points.

- Make sure you know how to use the equipment you are working with.
- Practice the presentation using the equipment several times.
- Enlist the help of a classmate to push play or turn lights out for you. Be sure to practice your presentation with him or her.
- If possible, set up all of the equipment ahead of time, and make sure everything is working properly.



Figure 19 These students are engaging the audience using a variety of tools.

Computer Presentations

There are many different interactive computer programs that you can use to enhance your presentation. Most computers have a compact disc (CD) drive that can play both CDs and digital video discs (DVDs). Also, there is hardware to connect a regular CD, DVD, or VCR. These tools will enhance your presentation.

Another method of using the computer to aid in your presentation is to develop a slide show using a computer program. This can allow movement of visuals at the presenter's pace, and can allow for visuals to build on one another.

Learn the Skill In order to create multimedia presentations on a computer, you need to have certain tools. These may include traditional graphic tools and drawing programs, animation programs, and authoring systems that tie everything together. Your computer will tell you which tools it supports. The most important step is to learn about the tools that you will be using.

- Often, color and strong images will convey a point better than words alone. Use the best methods available to convey your point.
- As with other presentations, practice many times.
- Practice your presentation with the tools you and any assistants will be using.
- Maintain eye contact with the audience. The purpose of using the computer is not to prompt the presenter, but to help the audience understand the points of the presentation.

Math Review

Use Fractions

A fraction compares a part to a whole. In the fraction $\frac{2}{3}$, the 2 represents the part and is the numerator. The 3 represents the whole and is the denominator.

Reduce Fractions To reduce a fraction, you must find the largest factor that is common to both the numerator and the denominator, the greatest common factor (GCF). Divide both numbers by the GCF. The fraction has then been reduced, or it is in its simplest form.

Example Twelve of the 20 chemicals in the science lab are in powder form. What fraction of the chemicals used in the lab are in powder form?

Step 1 Write the fraction.

$$\frac{\text{part}}{\text{whole}} = \frac{12}{20}$$

Step 2 To find the GCF of the numerator and denominator, list all of the factors of each number.

Factors of 12: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12 (the numbers that divide evenly into 12)

Factors of 20: 1, 2, 4, 5, 10, 20 (the numbers that divide evenly into 20)

Step 3 List the common factors.

1, 2, 4.

Step 4 Choose the greatest factor in the list.

The GCF of 12 and 20 is 4.

Step 5 Divide the numerator and denominator by the GCF.

$$\frac{12 \div 4}{20 \div 4} = \frac{3}{5}$$

In the lab, $\frac{3}{5}$ of the chemicals are in powder form.

Practice Problem At an amusement park, 66 of 90 rides have a height restriction. What fraction of the rides, in its simplest form, has a height restriction?

Add and Subtract Fractions To add or subtract fractions with the same denominator, add or subtract the numerators and write the sum or difference over the denominator. After finding the sum or difference, find the simplest form for your fraction.

Example 1 In the forest outside your house, $\frac{1}{8}$ of the animals are rabbits, $\frac{3}{8}$ are squirrels, and the remainder are birds and insects. How many are mammals?

Step 1 Add the numerators.

$$\frac{1}{8} + \frac{3}{8} = \frac{(1 + 3)}{8} = \frac{4}{8}$$

Step 2 Find the GCF.

$$\frac{4}{8} \text{ (GCF, 4)}$$

Step 3 Divide the numerator and denominator by the GCF.

$$\frac{4}{4} = 1, \quad \frac{8}{4} = 2$$

$\frac{1}{2}$ of the animals are mammals.

Example 2 If $\frac{7}{16}$ of the Earth is covered by freshwater, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of that is in glaciers, how much freshwater is not frozen?

Step 1 Subtract the numerators.

$$\frac{7}{16} - \frac{1}{16} = \frac{(7 - 1)}{16} = \frac{6}{16}$$

Step 2 Find the GCF.

$$\frac{6}{16} \text{ (GCF, 2)}$$

Step 3 Divide the numerator and denominator by the GCF.

$$\frac{6}{2} = 3, \quad \frac{16}{2} = 8$$

$\frac{3}{8}$ of the freshwater is not frozen.

Practice Problem A bicycle rider is going 15 km/h for $\frac{4}{9}$ of his ride, 10 km/h for $\frac{2}{9}$ of his ride, and 8 km/h for the remainder of the ride. How much of his ride is he going over 8 km/h?

Unlike Denominators To add or subtract fractions with unlike denominators, first find the least common denominator (LCD). This is the smallest number that is a common multiple of both denominators. Rename each fraction with the LCD, and then add or subtract. Find the simplest form if necessary.

Example 1 A chemist makes a paste that is $\frac{1}{2}$ table salt (NaCl), $\frac{1}{3}$ sugar ($C_6H_{12}O_6$), and the rest water (H_2O). How much of the paste is a solid?

Step 1 Find the LCD of the fractions.

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \quad (\text{LCD}, 6)$$

Step 2 Rename each numerator and each denominator with the LCD.

$$1 \times 3 = 3, \quad 2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$1 \times 2 = 2, \quad 3 \times 2 = 6$$

Step 3 Add the numerators.

$$\frac{3}{6} + \frac{2}{6} = \frac{(3 + 2)}{6} = \frac{5}{6}$$

$\frac{5}{6}$ of the paste is a solid.

Example 2 The average precipitation in Grand Junction, CO, is $\frac{7}{10}$ inch in November, and $\frac{3}{5}$ inch in December. What is the total average precipitation?

Step 1 Find the LCD of the fractions.

$$\frac{7}{10} + \frac{3}{5} \quad (\text{LCD}, 10)$$

Step 2 Rename each numerator and each denominator with the LCD.

$$7 \times 1 = 7, \quad 10 \times 1 = 10$$

$$3 \times 2 = 6, \quad 5 \times 2 = 10$$

Step 3 Add the numerators.

$$\frac{7}{10} + \frac{6}{10} = \frac{(7 + 6)}{10} = \frac{13}{10}$$

$\frac{13}{10}$ inches total precipitation, or $1\frac{3}{10}$ inches.

Practice Problem On an electric bill, about $\frac{1}{8}$ of the energy is from solar energy and about $\frac{1}{10}$ is from wind power. How much of the total bill is from solar energy and wind power combined?

Example 3 In your body, $\frac{7}{10}$ of your muscle contractions are involuntary (cardiac and smooth muscle tissue). Smooth muscle makes $\frac{3}{15}$ of your muscle contractions. How many of your muscle contractions are made by cardiac muscle?

Step 1 Find the LCD of the fractions.

$$\frac{7}{10} - \frac{3}{15} \quad (\text{LCD}, 30)$$

Step 2 Rename each numerator and each denominator with the LCD.

$$7 \times 3 = 21, \quad 10 \times 3 = 30$$

$$3 \times 2 = 6, \quad 15 \times 2 = 30$$

Step 3 Subtract the numerators.

$$\frac{21}{30} - \frac{6}{30} = \frac{(21 - 6)}{30} = \frac{15}{30}$$

Step 4 Find the GCF.

$$\frac{15}{30} \quad (\text{GCF}, 15)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}$$

$\frac{1}{2}$ of all muscle contractions are cardiac muscle.

Example 4 Tony wants to make cookies that call for $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cup of flour, but he only has $\frac{1}{3}$ of a cup. How much more flour does he need?

Step 1 Find the LCD of the fractions.

$$\frac{3}{4} - \frac{1}{3} \quad (\text{LCD}, 12)$$

Step 2 Rename each numerator and each denominator with the LCD.

$$3 \times 3 = 9, \quad 4 \times 3 = 12$$

$$1 \times 4 = 4, \quad 3 \times 4 = 12$$

Step 3 Subtract the numerators.

$$\frac{9}{12} - \frac{4}{12} = \frac{(9 - 4)}{12} = \frac{5}{12}$$

$\frac{5}{12}$ of a cup of flour.

Practice Problem Using the information provided to you in Example 3 above, determine how many muscle contractions are voluntary (skeletal muscle).

Multiply Fractions To multiply with fractions, multiply the numerators and multiply the denominators. Find the simplest form if necessary.

Example Multiply $\frac{3}{5}$ by $\frac{1}{3}$.

Step 1 Multiply the numerators and denominators.

$$\frac{3}{5} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{(3 \times 1)}{(5 \times 3)} = \frac{3}{15}$$

Step 2 Find the GCF.

$$\frac{3}{15} \text{ (GCF, 3)}$$

Step 3 Divide the numerator and denominator by the GCF.

$$\frac{3}{3} = 1, \quad \frac{15}{3} = 5$$

$$\frac{1}{5}$$

$\frac{3}{5}$ multiplied by $\frac{1}{3}$ is $\frac{1}{5}$.

Practice Problem Multiply $\frac{3}{14}$ by $\frac{5}{16}$.

Find a Reciprocal Two numbers whose product is 1 are called multiplicative inverses, or reciprocals.

Example Find the reciprocal of $\frac{3}{8}$.

Step 1 Inverse the fraction by putting the denominator on top and the numerator on the bottom.

$$\frac{8}{3}$$

The reciprocal of $\frac{3}{8}$ is $\frac{8}{3}$.

Practice Problem Find the reciprocal of $\frac{4}{9}$.

Divide Fractions To divide one fraction by another fraction, multiply the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor. Find the simplest form if necessary.

Example 1 Divide $\frac{1}{9}$ by $\frac{1}{3}$.

Step 1 Find the reciprocal of the divisor.

The reciprocal of $\frac{1}{3}$ is $\frac{3}{1}$.

Step 2 Multiply the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor.

$$\frac{1}{9} \div \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} \times \frac{3}{1} = \frac{(1 \times 3)}{(9 \times 1)} = \frac{3}{9}$$

Step 3 Find the GCF.

$$\frac{3}{9} \text{ (GCF, 3)}$$

Step 4 Divide the numerator and denominator by the GCF.

$$\frac{3}{3} = 1, \quad \frac{9}{3} = 3$$

$$\frac{1}{3}$$

$\frac{1}{9}$ divided by $\frac{1}{3}$ is $\frac{1}{3}$.

Example 2 Divide $\frac{3}{5}$ by $\frac{1}{4}$.

Step 1 Find the reciprocal of the divisor.

The reciprocal of $\frac{1}{4}$ is $\frac{4}{1}$.

Step 2 Multiply the dividend by the reciprocal of the divisor.

$$\frac{3}{5} \div \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{5} \times \frac{4}{1} = \frac{(3 \times 4)}{(5 \times 1)} = \frac{12}{5}$$

$\frac{3}{5}$ divided by $\frac{1}{4}$ is $\frac{12}{5}$ or $2\frac{2}{5}$.

Practice Problem Divide $\frac{3}{11}$ by $\frac{7}{10}$.

Use Ratios

When you compare two numbers by division, you are using a ratio. Ratios can be written 3 to 5, 3:5, or $\frac{3}{5}$. Ratios, like fractions, also can be written in simplest form.

Ratios can represent probabilities, also called odds. This is a ratio that compares the number of ways a certain outcome occurs to the number of outcomes. For example, if you flip a coin 100 times, what are the odds that it will come up heads? There are two possible outcomes, heads or tails, so the odds of coming up heads are 50:100. Another way to say this is that 50 out of 100 times the coin will come up heads. In its simplest form, the ratio is 1:2.

Example 1 A chemical solution contains 40 g of salt and 64 g of baking soda. What is the ratio of salt to baking soda as a fraction in simplest form?

Step 1 Write the ratio as a fraction.

$$\frac{\text{salt}}{\text{baking soda}} = \frac{40}{64}$$

Step 2 Express the fraction in simplest form.

The GCF of 40 and 64 is 8.

$$\frac{40}{64} = \frac{40 \div 8}{64 \div 8} = \frac{5}{8}$$

The ratio of salt to baking soda in the sample is 5:8.

Example 2 Sean rolls a 6-sided die 6 times. What are the odds that the side with a 3 will show?

Step 1 Write the ratio as a fraction.

$$\frac{\text{number of sides with a 3}}{\text{number of sides}} = \frac{1}{6}$$

Step 2 Multiply by the number of attempts.

$$\frac{1}{6} \times 6 \text{ attempts} = \frac{6}{6} \text{ attempts} = 1 \text{ attempt}$$

1 attempt out of 6 will show a 3.

Practice Problem Two metal rods measure 100 cm and 144 cm in length. What is the ratio of their lengths in simplest form?

Use Decimals

A fraction with a denominator that is a power of ten can be written as a decimal. For example, 0.27 means $\frac{27}{100}$. The decimal point separates the ones place from the tenths place.

Any fraction can be written as a decimal using division. For example, the fraction $\frac{5}{8}$ can be written as a decimal by dividing 5 by 8. Written as a decimal, it is 0.625.

Add or Subtract Decimals When adding and subtracting decimals, line up the decimal points before carrying out the operation.

Example 1 Find the sum of 47.68 and 7.80.

Step 1 Line up the decimal places when you write the numbers.

$$\begin{array}{r} 47.68 \\ + 7.80 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Step 2 Add the decimals.

$$\begin{array}{r} 47.68 \\ + 7.80 \\ \hline 55.48 \end{array}$$

The sum of 47.68 and 7.80 is 55.48.

Example 2 Find the difference of 42.17 and 15.85.

Step 1 Line up the decimal places when you write the number.

$$\begin{array}{r} 42.17 \\ - 15.85 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Step 2 Subtract the decimals.

$$\begin{array}{r} 42.17 \\ - 15.85 \\ \hline 26.32 \end{array}$$

The difference of 42.17 and 15.85 is 26.32.

Practice Problem Find the sum of 1.245 and 3.842.

Multiply Decimals To multiply decimals, multiply the numbers like any other number, ignoring the decimal point. Count the decimal places in each factor. The product will have the same number of decimal places as the sum of the decimal places in the factors.

Example Multiply 2.4 by 5.9.

Step 1 Multiply the factors like two whole numbers.

$$24 \times 59 = 1416$$

Step 2 Find the sum of the number of decimal places in the factors. Each factor has one decimal place, for a sum of two decimal places.

Step 3 The product will have two decimal places.

$$14.16$$

The product of 2.4 and 5.9 is 14.16.

Practice Problem Multiply 4.6 by 2.2.

Divide Decimals When dividing decimals, change the divisor to a whole number. To do this, multiply both the divisor and the dividend by the same power of ten. Then place the decimal point in the quotient directly above the decimal point in the dividend. Then divide as you do with whole numbers.

Example Divide 8.84 by 3.4.

Step 1 Multiply both factors by 10.

$$3.4 \times 10 = 34, 8.84 \times 10 = 88.4$$

Step 2 Divide 88.4 by 34.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2.6 \\ 34 \overline{)88.4} \\ \underline{-68} \\ 204 \\ \underline{-204} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

8.84 divided by 3.4 is 2.6.

Practice Problem Divide 75.6 by 3.6.

Use Proportions

An equation that shows that two ratios are equivalent is a proportion. The ratios $\frac{2}{4}$ and $\frac{5}{10}$ are equivalent, so they can be written as $\frac{2}{4} = \frac{5}{10}$. This equation is a proportion.

When two ratios form a proportion, the cross products are equal. To find the cross products in the proportion $\frac{2}{4} = \frac{5}{10}$, multiply the 2 and the 10, and the 4 and the 5. Therefore $2 \times 10 = 4 \times 5$, or $20 = 20$.

Because you know that both proportions are equal, you can use cross products to find a missing term in a proportion. This is known as solving the proportion.

Example The heights of a tree and a pole are proportional to the lengths of their shadows. The tree casts a shadow of 24 m when a 6-m pole casts a shadow of 4 m. What is the height of the tree?

Step 1 Write a proportion.

$$\frac{\text{height of tree}}{\text{height of pole}} = \frac{\text{length of tree's shadow}}{\text{length of pole's shadow}}$$

Step 2 Substitute the known values into the proportion. Let h represent the unknown value, the height of the tree.

$$\frac{h}{6} = \frac{24}{4}$$

Step 3 Find the cross products.

$$h \times 4 = 6 \times 24$$

Step 4 Simplify the equation.

$$4h = 144$$

Step 5 Divide each side by 4.

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{4h}{4} = \frac{144}{4} \\ h = 36 \end{array}$$

The height of the tree is 36 m.

Practice Problem The ratios of the weights of two objects on the Moon and on Earth are in proportion. A rock weighing 3 N on the Moon weighs 18 N on Earth. How much would a rock that weighs 5 N on the Moon weigh on Earth?

Use Percentages

The word *percent* means “out of one hundred.” It is a ratio that compares a number to 100. Suppose you read that 77 percent of the Earth’s surface is covered by water. That is the same as reading that the fraction of the Earth’s surface covered by water is $\frac{77}{100}$. To express a fraction as a percent, first find the equivalent decimal for the fraction. Then, multiply the decimal by 100 and add the percent symbol.

Example Express $\frac{13}{20}$ as a percent.

Step 1 Find the equivalent decimal for the fraction.

$$\begin{array}{r} 0.65 \\ 20 \overline{)13.00} \\ \underline{12\ 0} \\ 1\ 00 \\ \underline{1\ 00} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Step 2 Rewrite the fraction $\frac{13}{20}$ as 0.65.

Step 3 Multiply 0.65 by 100 and add the % sign.

$$0.65 \times 100 = 65 = 65\%$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{13}{20} = 65\%.$$

This also can be solved as a proportion.

Example Express $\frac{13}{20}$ as a percent.

Step 1 Write a proportion.

$$\frac{13}{20} = \frac{x}{100}$$

Step 2 Find the cross products.

$$1300 = 20x$$

Step 3 Divide each side by 20.

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{1300}{20} = \frac{20x}{20} \\ 65\% = x \end{array}$$

Practice Problem In one year, 73 of 365 days were rainy in one city. What percent of the days in that city were rainy?

Solve One-Step Equations

A statement that two things are equal is an equation. For example, $A = B$ is an equation that states that A is equal to B .

An equation is solved when a variable is replaced with a value that makes both sides of the equation equal. To make both sides equal the inverse operation is used. Addition and subtraction are inverses, and multiplication and division are inverses.

Example 1 Solve the equation $x - 10 = 35$.

Step 1 Find the solution by adding 10 to each side of the equation.

$$\begin{array}{l} x - 10 = 35 \\ x - 10 + 10 = 35 + 10 \\ x = 45 \end{array}$$

Step 2 Check the solution.

$$\begin{array}{l} x - 10 = 35 \\ 45 - 10 = 35 \\ 35 = 35 \end{array}$$

Both sides of the equation are equal, so $x = 45$.

Example 2 In the formula $a = bc$, find the value of c if $a = 20$ and $b = 2$.

Step 1 Rearrange the formula so the unknown value is by itself on one side of the equation by dividing both sides by b .

$$\begin{array}{l} a = bc \\ \frac{a}{b} = \frac{bc}{b} \\ \frac{a}{b} = c \end{array}$$

Step 2 Replace the variables a and b with the values that are given.

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{a}{b} = c \\ \frac{20}{2} = c \\ 10 = c \end{array}$$

Step 3 Check the solution.

$$\begin{array}{l} a = bc \\ 20 = 2 \times 10 \\ 20 = 20 \end{array}$$

Both sides of the equation are equal, so $c = 10$ is the solution when $a = 20$ and $b = 2$.

Practice Problem In the formula $h = gd$, find the value of d if $g = 12.3$ and $h = 17.4$.

Use Statistics

The branch of mathematics that deals with collecting, analyzing, and presenting data is statistics. In statistics, there are three common ways to summarize data with a single number—the mean, the median, and the mode.

The **mean** of a set of data is the arithmetic average. It is found by adding the numbers in the data set and dividing by the number of items in the set.

The **median** is the middle number in a set of data when the data are arranged in numerical order. If there were an even number of data points, the median would be the mean of the two middle numbers.

The **mode** of a set of data is the number or item that appears most often.

Another number that often is used to describe a set of data is the range. The **range** is the difference between the largest number and the smallest number in a set of data.

A **frequency table** shows how many times each piece of data occurs, usually in a survey. **Table 2** below shows the results of a student survey on favorite color.

Table 2 Student Color Choice

Color	Tally	Frequency
red		4
blue		5
black		2
green		3
purple		7
yellow		6

Based on the frequency table data, which color is the favorite?

Example The speeds (in m/s) for a race car during five different time trials are 39, 37, 44, 36, and 44.

To find the mean:

Step 1 Find the sum of the numbers.

$$39 + 37 + 44 + 36 + 44 = 200$$

Step 2 Divide the sum by the number of items, which is 5.

$$200 \div 5 = 40$$

The mean is 40 m/s.

To find the median:

Step 1 Arrange the measures from least to greatest.

$$36, 37, 39, 44, 44$$

Step 2 Determine the middle measure.

$$36, 37, \underline{39}, 44, 44$$

The median is 39 m/s.

To find the mode:

Step 1 Group the numbers that are the same together.

$$44, 44, 36, 37, 39$$

Step 2 Determine the number that occurs most in the set.

$$\underline{44}, \underline{44}, 36, 37, 39$$

The mode is 44 m/s.

To find the range:

Step 1 Arrange the measures from largest to smallest.

$$44, 44, 39, 37, 36$$

Step 2 Determine the largest and smallest measures in the set.

$$44, 44, 39, 37, \underline{36}$$

Step 3 Find the difference between the largest and smallest measures.

$$44 - 36 = 8$$

The range is 8 m/s.

Practice Problem Find the mean, median, mode, and range for the data set 8, 4, 12, 8, 11, 14, 16.

Use Geometry

The branch of mathematics that deals with the measurement, properties, and relationships of points, lines, angles, surfaces, and solids is called geometry.

Perimeter The **perimeter** (P) is the distance around a geometric figure. To find the perimeter of a rectangle, add the length and width and multiply that sum by two, or $2(l + w)$. To find perimeters of irregular figures, add the length of the sides.

Example 1 Find the perimeter of a rectangle that is 3 m long and 5 m wide.

Step 1 You know that the perimeter is 2 times the sum of the width and length.

$$P = 2(3 \text{ m} + 5 \text{ m})$$

Step 2 Find the sum of the width and length.

$$P = 2(8 \text{ m})$$

Step 3 Multiply by 2.

$$P = 16 \text{ m}$$

The perimeter is 16 m.

Example 2 Find the perimeter of a shape with sides measuring 2 cm, 5 cm, 6 cm, 3 cm.

Step 1 You know that the perimeter is the sum of all the sides.

$$P = 2 + 5 + 6 + 3$$

Step 2 Find the sum of the sides.

$$P = 2 + 5 + 6 + 3$$

$$P = 16$$

The perimeter is 16 cm.

Practice Problem Find the perimeter of a rectangle with a length of 18 m and a width of 7 m.

Practice Problem Find the perimeter of a triangle measuring 1.6 cm by 2.4 cm by 2.4 cm.

Area of a Rectangle The **area** (A) is the number of square units needed to cover a surface. To find the area of a rectangle, multiply the length times the width, or $l \times w$. When finding area, the units also are multiplied. Area is given in square units.

Example Find the area of a rectangle with a length of 1 cm and a width of 10 cm.

Step 1 You know that the area is the length multiplied by the width.

$$A = (1 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm})$$

Step 2 Multiply the length by the width. Also multiply the units.

$$A = 10 \text{ cm}^2$$

The area is 10 cm^2 .

Practice Problem Find the area of a square whose sides measure 4 m.

Area of a Triangle To find the area of a triangle, use the formula:

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(\text{base} \times \text{height})$$

The base of a triangle can be any of its sides. The height is the perpendicular distance from a base to the opposite endpoint, or vertex.

Example Find the area of a triangle with a base of 18 m and a height of 7 m.

Step 1 You know that the area is $\frac{1}{2}$ the base times the height.

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(18 \text{ m} \times 7 \text{ m})$$

Step 2 Multiply $\frac{1}{2}$ by the product of 18×7 . Multiply the units.

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(126 \text{ m}^2)$$

$$A = 63 \text{ m}^2$$

The area is 63 m^2 .

Practice Problem Find the area of a triangle with a base of 27 cm and a height of 17 cm.

Circumference of a Circle The **diameter** (d) of a circle is the distance across the circle through its center, and the **radius** (r) is the distance from the center to any point on the circle. The radius is half of the diameter. The distance around the circle is called the **circumference** (C). The formula for finding the circumference is:

$$C = 2\pi r \text{ or } C = \pi d$$

The circumference divided by the diameter is always equal to 3.1415926... This nonterminating and nonrepeating number is represented by the Greek letter π (pi). An approximation often used for π is 3.14.

Example 1 Find the circumference of a circle with a radius of 3 m.

Step 1 You know the formula for the circumference is 2 times the radius times π .

$$C = 2\pi(3)$$

Step 2 Multiply 2 times the radius.

$$C = 6\pi$$

Step 3 Multiply by π .

$$C = 19 \text{ m}$$

The circumference is 19 m.

Example 2 Find the circumference of a circle with a diameter of 24.0 cm.

Step 1 You know the formula for the circumference is the diameter times π .

$$C = \pi(24.0)$$

Step 2 Multiply the diameter by π .

$$C = 75.4 \text{ cm}$$

The circumference is 75.4 cm.

Practice Problem Find the circumference of a circle with a radius of 19 cm.

Area of a Circle The formula for the area of a circle is:

$$A = \pi r^2$$

Example 1 Find the area of a circle with a radius of 4.0 cm.

Step 1 $A = \pi(4.0)^2$

Step 2 Find the square of the radius.

$$A = 16\pi$$

Step 3 Multiply the square of the radius by π .

$$A = 50 \text{ cm}^2$$

The area of the circle is 50 cm².

Example 2 Find the area of a circle with a radius of 225 m.

Step 1 $A = \pi(225)^2$

Step 2 Find the square of the radius.

$$A = 50625\pi$$

Step 3 Multiply the square of the radius by π .

$$A = 158962.5$$

The area of the circle is 158,962 m².

Example 3 Find the area of a circle whose diameter is 20.0 mm.

Step 1 You know the formula for the area of a circle is the square of the radius times π , and that the radius is half of the diameter.

$$A = \pi\left(\frac{20.0}{2}\right)^2$$

Step 2 Find the radius.

$$A = \pi(10.0)^2$$

Step 3 Find the square of the radius.

$$A = 100\pi$$

Step 4 Multiply the square of the radius by π .

$$A = 314 \text{ mm}^2$$

The area is 314 mm².

Practice Problem Find the area of a circle with a radius of 16 m.

Volume The measure of space occupied by a solid is the **volume** (V). To find the volume of a rectangular solid multiply the length times width times height, or $V = l \times w \times h$. It is measured in cubic units, such as cubic centimeters (cm^3).

Example Find the volume of a rectangular solid with a length of 2.0 m, a width of 4.0 m, and a height of 3.0 m.

Step 1 You know the formula for volume is the length times the width times the height.
 $V = 2.0 \text{ m} \times 4.0 \text{ m} \times 3.0 \text{ m}$

Step 2 Multiply the length times the width times the height.
 $V = 24 \text{ m}^3$

The volume is 24 m^3 .

Practice Problem Find the volume of a rectangular solid that is 8 m long, 4 m wide, and 4 m high.

To find the volume of other solids, multiply the area of the base times the height.

Example 1 Find the volume of a solid that has a triangular base with a length of 8.0 m and a height of 7.0 m. The height of the entire solid is 15.0 m.

Step 1 You know that the base is a triangle, and the area of a triangle is $\frac{1}{2}$ the base times the height, and the volume is the area of the base times the height.
 $V = \left[\frac{1}{2} (b \times h) \right] \times 15$

Step 2 Find the area of the base.
 $V = \left[\frac{1}{2} (8 \times 7) \right] \times 15$
 $V = \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 56 \right) \times 15$

Step 3 Multiply the area of the base by the height of the solid.
 $V = 28 \times 15$
 $V = 420 \text{ m}^3$

The volume is 420 m^3 .

Example 2 Find the volume of a cylinder that has a base with a radius of 12.0 cm, and a height of 21.0 cm.

Step 1 You know that the base is a circle, and the area of a circle is the square of the radius times π , and the volume is the area of the base times the height.
 $V = (\pi r^2) \times 21$
 $V = (\pi 12^2) \times 21$

Step 2 Find the area of the base.
 $V = 144\pi \times 21$
 $V = 452 \times 21$

Step 3 Multiply the area of the base by the height of the solid.
 $V = 9490 \text{ cm}^3$

The volume is 9490 cm^3 .

Example 3 Find the volume of a cylinder that has a diameter of 15 mm and a height of 4.8 mm.

Step 1 You know that the base is a circle with an area equal to the square of the radius times π . The radius is one-half the diameter. The volume is the area of the base times the height.
 $V = (\pi r^2) \times 4.8$
 $V = \left[\pi \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 15 \right)^2 \right] \times 4.8$
 $V = (\pi 7.5^2) \times 4.8$

Step 2 Find the area of the base.
 $V = 56.25\pi \times 4.8$
 $V = 176.63 \times 4.8$

Step 3 Multiply the area of the base by the height of the solid.
 $V = 847.8$

The volume is 847.8 mm^3 .

Practice Problem Find the volume of a cylinder with a diameter of 7 cm in the base and a height of 16 cm.

Science Applications

Measure in SI

The metric system of measurement was developed in 1795. A modern form of the metric system, called the International System (SI), was adopted in 1960 and provides the standard measurements that all scientists around the world can understand.

The SI system is convenient because unit sizes vary by powers of 10. Prefixes are used to name units. Look at **Table 3** for some common SI prefixes and their meanings.

Table 3 Common SI Prefixes

Prefix	Symbol	Meaning	
kilo-	k	1,000	thousand
hecto-	h	100	hundred
deka-	da	10	ten
deci-	d	0.1	tenth
centi-	c	0.01	hundredth
milli-	m	0.001	thousandth

Example How many grams equal one kilogram?

Step 1 Find the prefix *kilo* in **Table 3**.

Step 2 Using **Table 3**, determine the meaning of *kilo*. According to the table, it means 1,000. When the prefix *kilo* is added to a unit, it means that there are 1,000 of the units in a "kilounit."

Step 3 Apply the prefix to the units in the question. The units in the question are grams. There are 1,000 grams in a kilogram.

Practice Problem Is a milligram larger or smaller than a gram? How many of the smaller units equal one larger unit? What fraction of the larger unit does one smaller unit represent?

Dimensional Analysis

Convert SI Units In science, quantities such as length, mass, and time sometimes are measured using different units. A process called dimensional analysis can be used to change one unit of measure to another. This process involves multiplying your starting quantity and units by one or more conversion factors. A conversion factor is a ratio equal to one and can be made from any two equal quantities with different units. If 1,000 mL equal 1 L then two ratios can be made.

$$\frac{1,000 \text{ mL}}{1 \text{ L}} = \frac{1 \text{ L}}{1,000 \text{ mL}} = 1$$

One can convert between units in the SI system by using the equivalents in **Table 3** to make conversion factors.

Example 1 How many cm are in 4 m?

Step 1 Write conversion factors for the units given. From **Table 3**, you know that $100 \text{ cm} = 1 \text{ m}$. The conversion factors are

$$\frac{100 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ m}} \text{ and } \frac{1 \text{ m}}{100 \text{ cm}}$$

Step 2 Decide which conversion factor to use. Select the factor that has the units you are converting from (m) in the denominator and the units you are converting to (cm) in the numerator.

$$\frac{100 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ m}}$$

Step 3 Multiply the starting quantity and units by the conversion factor. Cancel the starting units with the units in the denominator. There are 400 cm in 4 m.

$$4 \cancel{\text{ m}} \times \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{1 \cancel{\text{ m}}} = 400 \text{ cm}$$

Practice Problem How many milligrams are in one kilogram? (Hint: You will need to use two conversion factors from **Table 3**.)

Table 4 Unit System Equivalents

Type of Measurement	Equivalent
Length	1 in = 2.54 cm 1 yd = 0.91 m 1 mi = 1.61 km
Mass and Weight*	1 oz = 28.35 g 1 lb = 0.45 kg 1 ton (short) = 0.91 tonnes (metric tons) 1 lb = 4.45 N
Volume	1 in ³ = 16.39 cm ³ 1 qt = 0.95 L 1 gal = 3.78 L
Area	1 in ² = 6.45 cm ² 1 yd ² = 0.83 m ² 1 mi ² = 2.59 km ² 1 acre = 0.40 hectares
Temperature	$^{\circ}\text{C} = \frac{(^{\circ}\text{F} - 32)}{1.8}$ $\text{K} = ^{\circ}\text{C} + 273$

*Weight is measured in standard Earth gravity.

Convert Between Unit Systems Table 4

gives a list of equivalents that can be used to convert between English and SI units.

Example If a meterstick has a length of 100 cm, how long is the meterstick in inches?

Step 1 Write the conversion factors for the units given. From **Table 4**, 1 in = 2.54 cm.

$$\frac{1 \text{ in}}{2.54 \text{ cm}} \text{ and } \frac{2.54 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ in}}$$

Step 2 Determine which conversion factor to use. You are converting from cm to in. Use the conversion factor with cm on the bottom.

$$\frac{1 \text{ in}}{2.54 \text{ cm}}$$

Step 3 Multiply the starting quantity and units by the conversion factor. Cancel the starting units with the units in the denominator. Round your answer based on the number of significant figures in the conversion factor.

$$100 \text{ cm} \times \frac{1 \text{ in}}{2.54 \text{ cm}} = 39.37 \text{ in}$$

The meterstick is 39.4 in long.

Practice Problem A book has a mass of 5 lbs. What is the mass of the book in kg?

Practice Problem Use the equivalent for in and cm (1 in = 2.54 cm) to show how 1 in³ = 16.39 cm³.

Precision and Significant Digits

When you make a measurement, the value you record depends on the precision of the measuring instrument. This precision is represented by the number of significant digits recorded in the measurement. When counting the number of significant digits, all digits are counted except zeros at the end of a number with no decimal point such as 2,050, and zeros at the beginning of a decimal such as 0.03020. When adding or subtracting numbers with different precision, round the answer to the smallest number of decimal places of any number in the sum or difference. When multiplying or dividing, the answer is rounded to the smallest number of significant digits of any number being multiplied or divided.

Example The lengths 5.28 and 5.2 are measured in meters. Find the sum of these lengths and record your answer using the correct number of significant digits.

Step 1 Find the sum.

$$\begin{array}{r} 5.28 \text{ m} \quad 2 \text{ digits after the decimal} \\ + 5.2 \text{ m} \quad 1 \text{ digit after the decimal} \\ \hline 10.48 \text{ m} \end{array}$$

Step 2 Round to one digit after the decimal because the least number of digits after the decimal of the numbers being added is 1.

The sum is 10.5 m.

Practice Problem How many significant digits are in the measurement 7,071,301 m? How many significant digits are in the measurement 0.003010 g?

Practice Problem Multiply 5.28 and 5.2 using the rule for multiplying and dividing. Record the answer using the correct number of significant digits.

Scientific Notation

Many times numbers used in science are very small or very large. Because these numbers are difficult to work with scientists use scientific notation. To write numbers in scientific notation, move the decimal point until only one non-zero digit remains on the left. Then count the number of places you moved the decimal point and use that number as a power of ten. For example, the average distance from the Sun to Mars is 227,800,000,000 m. In scientific notation, this distance is 2.278×10^{11} m. Because you moved the decimal point to the left, the number is a positive power of ten.

The mass of an electron is about 0.000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 911 kg. Expressed in scientific notation, this mass is 9.11×10^{-31} kg. Because the decimal point was moved to the right, the number is a negative power of ten.

Example Earth is 149,600,000 km from the Sun. Express this in scientific notation.

Step 1 Move the decimal point until one non-zero digit remains on the left.

$$1.496 \text{ 000 00}$$

Step 2 Count the number of decimal places you have moved. In this case, eight.

Step 3 Show that number as a power of ten, 10^8 .

The Earth is 1.496×10^8 km from the Sun.

Practice Problem How many significant digits are in 149,600,000 km? How many significant digits are in 1.496×10^8 km?

Practice Problem Parts used in a high performance car must be measured to 7×10^{-6} m. Express this number as a decimal.

Practice Problem A CD is spinning at 539 revolutions per minute. Express this number in scientific notation.

Make and Use Graphs

Data in tables can be displayed in a graph—a visual representation of data. Common graph types include line graphs, bar graphs, and circle graphs.

Line Graph A line graph shows a relationship between two variables that change continuously. The independent variable is changed and is plotted on the x -axis. The dependent variable is observed, and is plotted on the y -axis.

Example Draw a line graph of the data below from a cyclist in a long-distance race.

Table 5 Bicycle Race Data	
Time (h)	Distance (km)
0	0
1	8
2	16
3	24
4	32
5	40

- Step 1** Determine the x -axis and y -axis variables. Time varies independently of distance and is plotted on the x -axis. Distance is dependent on time and is plotted on the y -axis.
- Step 2** Determine the scale of each axis. The x -axis data ranges from 0 to 5. The y -axis data ranges from 0 to 40.
- Step 3** Using graph paper, draw and label the axes. Include units in the labels.
- Step 4** Draw a point at the intersection of the time value on the x -axis and corresponding distance value on the y -axis. Connect the points and label the graph with a title, as shown in **Figure 20**.

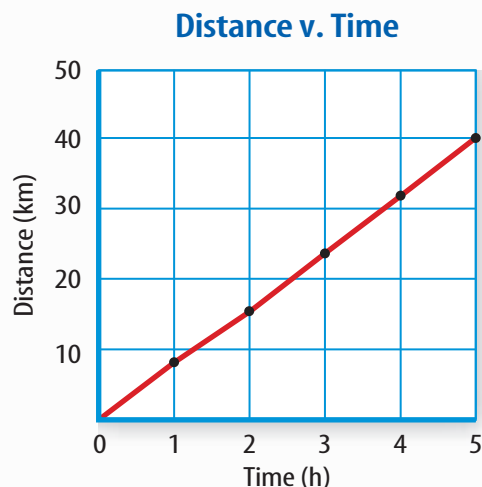


Figure 20 This line graph shows the relationship between distance and time during a bicycle ride.

Practice Problem A puppy's shoulder height is measured during the first year of her life. The following measurements were collected: (3 mo, 52 cm), (6 mo, 72 cm), (9 mo, 83 cm), (12 mo, 86 cm). Graph this data.

Find a Slope The slope of a straight line is the ratio of the vertical change, rise, to the horizontal change, run.

$$\text{Slope} = \frac{\text{vertical change (rise)}}{\text{horizontal change (run)}} = \frac{\text{change in } y}{\text{change in } x}$$

Example Find the slope of the graph in **Figure 20**.

- Step 1** You know that the slope is the change in y divided by the change in x .
- $$\text{Slope} = \frac{\text{change in } y}{\text{change in } x}$$
- Step 2** Determine the data points you will be using. For a straight line, choose the two sets of points that are the farthest apart.
- $$\text{Slope} = \frac{(40-0) \text{ km}}{(5-0) \text{ hr}}$$
- Step 3** Find the change in y and x .
- $$\text{Slope} = \frac{40 \text{ km}}{5 \text{ h}}$$
- Step 4** Divide the change in y by the change in x .
- $$\text{Slope} = \frac{8 \text{ km}}{\text{h}}$$

The slope of the graph is 8 km/h.

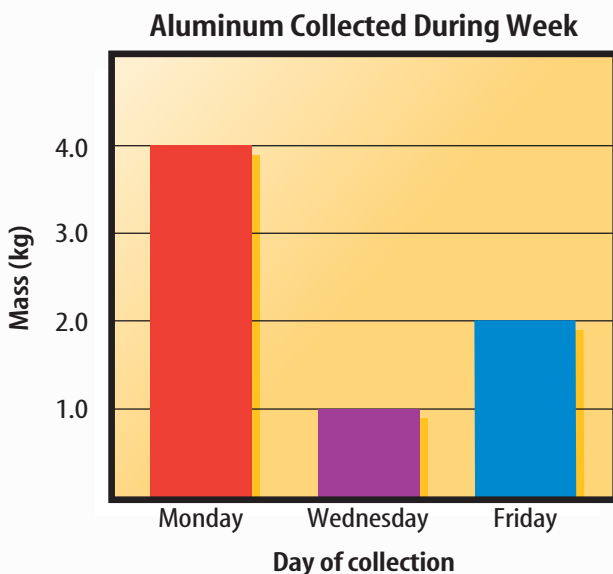
Bar Graph To compare data that does not change continuously you might choose a bar graph. A bar graph uses bars to show the relationships between variables. The x -axis variable is divided into parts. The parts can be numbers such as years, or a category such as a type of animal. The y -axis is a number and increases continuously along the axis.

Example A recycling center collects 4.0 kg of aluminum on Monday, 1.0 kg on Wednesday, and 2.0 kg on Friday. Create a bar graph of this data.

Step 1 Select the x -axis and y -axis variables. The measured numbers (the masses of aluminum) should be placed on the y -axis. The variable divided into parts (collection days) is placed on the x -axis.

Step 2 Create a graph grid like you would for a line graph. Include labels and units.

Step 3 For each measured number, draw a vertical bar above the x -axis value up to the y -axis value. For the first data point, draw a vertical bar above Monday up to 4.0 kg.



Practice Problem Draw a bar graph of the gases in air: 78% nitrogen, 21% oxygen, 1% other gases.

Circle Graph To display data as parts of a whole, you might use a circle graph. A circle graph is a circle divided into sections that represent the relative size of each piece of data. The entire circle represents 100%, half represents 50%, and so on.

Example Air is made up of 78% nitrogen, 21% oxygen, and 1% other gases. Display the composition of air in a circle graph.

Step 1 Multiply each percent by 360° and divide by 100 to find the angle of each section in the circle.

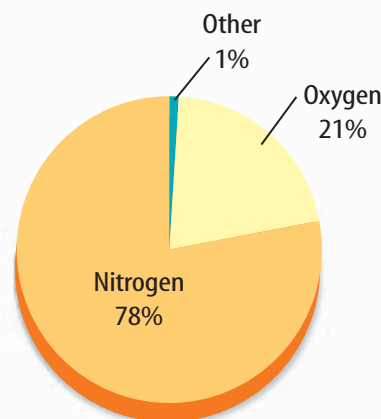
$$78\% \times \frac{360^\circ}{100} = 280.8^\circ$$

$$21\% \times \frac{360^\circ}{100} = 75.6^\circ$$

$$1\% \times \frac{360^\circ}{100} = 3.6^\circ$$

Step 2 Use a compass to draw a circle and to mark the center of the circle. Draw a straight line from the center to the edge of the circle.

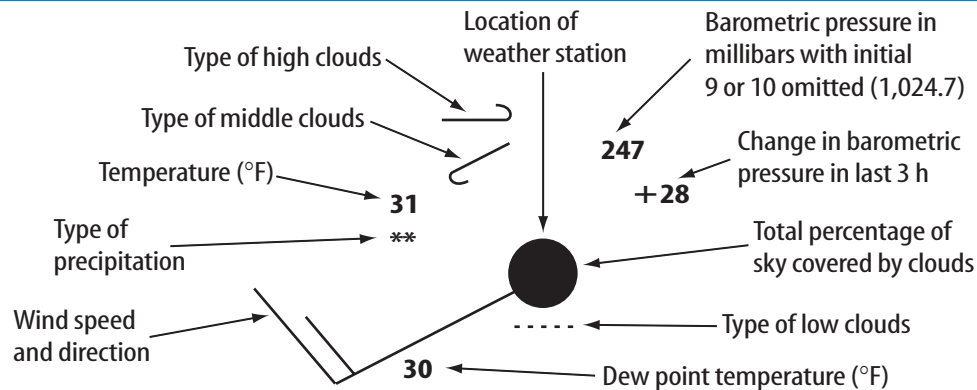
Step 3 Use a protractor and the angles you calculated to divide the circle into parts. Place the center of the protractor over the center of the circle and line the base of the protractor over the straight line.



Practice Problem Draw a circle graph to represent the amount of aluminum collected during the week shown in the bar graph to the left.

Weather Map Symbols

Sample Station Model



Sample Plotted Report at Each Station

Precipitation	Wind Speed and Direction	Sky Coverage	Some Types of High Clouds	
≡ Fog	○ 0 calm	○ No cover	— Scattered cirrus	
★ Snow	/ 1–2 knots	① 1/10 or less	— Dense cirrus in patches	
● Rain	✓ 3–7 knots	⊙ 2/10 to 3/10	— Veil of cirrus covering entire sky	
⚡ Thunderstorm	✓ 8–12 knots	⊙ 4/10	— Cirrus not covering entire sky	
⋄ Drizzle	✓ 13–17 knots	⊙ —		
▽ Showers	✓ 18–22 knots	⊙ 6/10		
	✓ 23–27 knots	⊙ 7/10		
	✓ 48–52 knots	⊙ Overcast with openings		
	1 knot = 1.852 km/h	● Completely overcast		
Some Types of Middle Clouds		Some Types of Low Clouds		Fronts and Pressure Systems
∠ Thin altostratus layer		⌒ Cumulus of fair weather		(H) or High (L) or Low Center of high- or low-pressure system
∥ Thick altostratus layer		⌒ Stratocumulus	▲▲▲▲ Cold front	
✓ Thin altostratus in patches		 Fractocumulus of bad weather	▲▲▲▲ Warm front	
✓ Thin altostratus in bands		— Stratus of fair weather	▲▲▲▲ Occluded front	
			▲▲▲▲ Stationary front	

Minerals

Minerals					
Mineral (formula)	Color	Streak	Hardness	Breakage Pattern	Uses and Other Properties
Graphite (C)	black to gray	black to gray	1–1.5	basal cleavage (scales)	pencil lead, lubricants for locks, rods to control some small nuclear reactions, battery poles
Galena (PbS)	gray	gray to black	2.5	cubic cleavage perfect	source of lead, used for pipes, shields for X rays, fishing equipment sinkers
Hematite (Fe ₂ O ₃)	black or reddish-brown	reddish-brown	5.5–6.5	irregular fracture	source of iron; converted to pig iron, made into steel
Magnetite (Fe ₃ O ₄)	black	black	6	conchoidal fracture	source of iron, attracts a magnet
Pyrite (FeS ₂)	light, brassy, yellow	greenish-black	6–6.5	uneven fracture	fool's gold
Talc (Mg ₃ Si ₄ O ₁₀ (OH) ₂)	white, greenish	white	1	cleavage in one direction	used for talcum powder, sculptures, paper, and tabletops
Gypsum (CaSO ₄ •2H ₂ O)	colorless, gray, white, brown	white	2	basal cleavage	used in plaster of paris and dry wall for building construction
Sphalerite (ZnS)	brown, reddish-brown, greenish	light to dark brown	3.5–4	cleavage in six directions	main ore of zinc; used in paints, dyes, and medicine
Muscovite (KAl ₃ Si ₃ O ₁₀ (OH) ₂)	white, light gray, yellow, rose, green	colorless	2–2.5	basal cleavage	occurs in large, flexible plates; used as an insulator in electrical equipment, lubricant
Biotite (K(Mg,Fe) ₃ (AlSi ₃ O ₁₀ (OH) ₂)	black to dark brown	colorless	2.5–3	basal cleavage	occurs in large, flexible plates
Halite (NaCl)	colorless, red, white, blue	colorless	2.5	cubic cleavage	salt; soluble in water; a preservative

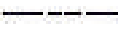
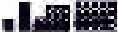
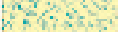
Minerals

Minerals					
Mineral (formula)	Color	Streak	Hardness	Breakage Pattern	Uses and Other Properties
Calcite (CaCO ₃)	colorless, white, pale blue	colorless, white	3	cleavage in three directions	fizzes when HCl is added; used in cements and other building materials
Dolomite (CaMg (CO ₃) ₂)	colorless, white, pink, green, gray, black	white	3.5–4	cleavage in three directions	concrete and cement; used as an ornamental building stone
Fluorite (CaF ₂)	colorless, white, blue, green, red, yellow, purple	colorless	4	cleavage in four directions	used in the manufacture of optical equipment; glows under ultraviolet light
Hornblende (CaNa) ₂₋₃ (Mg,Al, Fe) ₅ -(Al,Si) ₂ Si ₆ O ₂₂ (OH) ₂)	green to black	gray to white	5–6	cleavage in two directions	will transmit light on thin edges; 6-sided cross section
Feldspar (KAlSi ₃ O ₈) (NaAl Si ₃ O ₈), (CaAl ₂ Si ₂ O ₈)	colorless, white to gray, green	colorless	6	two cleavage planes meet at 90° angle	used in the manufacture of ceramics
Augite ((Ca,Na) (Mg,Fe,Al) (Al,Si) ₂ O ₆)	black	colorless	6	cleavage in two directions	square or 8-sided cross section
Olivine ((Mg,Fe) ₂ SiO ₄)	olive, green	none	6.5–7	conchoidal fracture	gemstones, refractory sand
Quartz (SiO ₂)	colorless, various colors	none	7	conchoidal fracture	used in glass manufacture, electronic equipment, radios, computers, watches, gemstones

Rocks

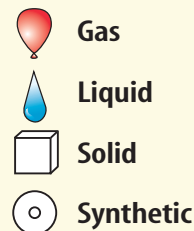
Rocks		
Rock Type	Rock Name	Characteristics
Igneous (intrusive)	Granite	Large mineral grains of quartz, feldspar, hornblende, and mica. Usually light in color.
	Diorite	Large mineral grains of feldspar, hornblende, and mica. Less quartz than granite. Intermediate in color.
	Gabbro	Large mineral grains of feldspar, augite, and olivine. No quartz. Dark in color.
Igneous (extrusive)	Rhyolite	Small mineral grains of quartz, feldspar, hornblende, and mica, or no visible grains. Light in color.
	Andesite	Small mineral grains of feldspar, hornblende, and mica or no visible grains. Intermediate in color.
	Basalt	Small mineral grains of feldspar, augite, and possibly olivine or no visible grains. No quartz. Dark in color.
	Obsidian	Glassy texture. No visible grains. Volcanic glass. Fracture looks like broken glass.
	Pumice	Frothy texture. Floats in water. Usually light in color.
Sedimentary (detrital)	Conglomerate	Coarse grained. Gravel or pebble-size grains.
	Sandstone	Sand-sized grains 1/16 to 2 mm.
	Siltstone	Grains are smaller than sand but larger than clay.
	Shale	Smallest grains. Often dark in color. Usually platy.
Sedimentary (chemical or organic)	Limestone	Major mineral is calcite. Usually forms in oceans and lakes. Often contains fossils.
	Coal	Forms in swampy areas. Compacted layers of organic material, mainly plant remains.
Sedimentary (chemical)	Rock Salt	Commonly forms by the evaporation of seawater.
Metamorphic (foliated)	Gneiss	Banding due to alternate layers of different minerals, of different colors. Parent rock often is granite.
	Schist	Parallel arrangement of sheetlike minerals, mainly micas. Forms from different parent rocks.
	Phyllite	Shiny or silky appearance. May look wrinkled. Common parent rocks are shale and slate.
	Slate	Harder, denser, and shinier than shale. Common parent rock is shale.
Metamorphic (nonfoliated)	Marble	Calcite or dolomite. Common parent rock is limestone.
	Soapstone	Mainly of talc. Soft with greasy feel.
	Quartzite	Hard with interlocking quartz crystals. Common parent rock is sandstone.

Topographic Map Symbols

Topographic Map Symbols	
 Primary highway, hard surface	 Index contour
 Secondary highway, hard surface	 Supplementary contour
 Light-duty road, hard or improved surface	 Intermediate contour
 Unimproved road	 Depression contours
 Railroad: single track	
 Railroad: multiple track	 Boundaries: national
 Railroads in juxtaposition	 State
	 County, parish, municipal
 Buildings	 Civil township, precinct, town, barrio
 Schools, church, and cemetery	 Incorporated city, village, town, hamlet
 Buildings (barn, warehouse, etc.)	 Reservation, national or state
 Wells other than water (labeled as to type)	 Small park, cemetery, airport, etc.
 Tanks: oil, water, etc. (labeled only if water)	 Land grant
 Located or landmark object; windmill	 Township or range line, U.S. land survey
 Open pit, mine, or quarry; prospect	 Township or range line, approximate location
 Marsh (swamp)	
 Wooded marsh	 Perennial streams
 Woods or brushwood	 Elevated aqueduct
 Vineyard	 Water well and spring
 Land subject to controlled inundation	 Small rapids
 Submerged marsh	 Large rapids
 Mangrove	 Intermittent lake
 Orchard	 Intermittent stream
 Scrub	 Aqueduct tunnel
 Urban area	 Glacier
	 Small falls
x7369 Spot elevation	 Large falls
670 Water elevation	 Dry lake bed

PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

Columns of elements are called groups. Elements in the same group have similar chemical properties.



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Hydrogen 1 H 1.008	Lithium 3 Li 6.941	Beryllium 4 Be 9.012						
Sodium 11 Na 22.990	Magnesium 12 Mg 24.305							
Potassium 19 K 39.098	Calcium 20 Ca 40.078	Scandium 21 Sc 44.956	Titanium 22 Ti 47.867	Vanadium 23 V 50.942	Chromium 24 Cr 51.996	Manganese 25 Mn 54.938	Iron 26 Fe 55.845	Cobalt 27 Co 58.933
Rubidium 37 Rb 85.468	Strontium 38 Sr 87.62	Yttrium 39 Y 88.906	Zirconium 40 Zr 91.224	Niobium 41 Nb 92.906	Molybdenum 42 Mo 95.94	Technetium 43 Tc (98)	Ruthenium 44 Ru 101.07	Rhodium 45 Rh 102.906
Cesium 55 Cs 132.905	Barium 56 Ba 137.327	Lanthanum 57 La 138.906	Hafnium 72 Hf 178.49	Tantalum 73 Ta 180.948	Tungsten 74 W 183.84	Rhenium 75 Re 186.207	Osmium 76 Os 190.23	Iridium 77 Ir 192.217
Francium 87 Fr (223)	Radium 88 Ra (226)	Actinium 89 Ac (227)	Rutherfordium 104 Rf (261)	Dubnium 105 Db (262)	Seaborgium 106 Sg (266)	Bohrium 107 Bh (264)	Hassium 108 Hs (277)	Meitnerium 109 Mt (268)

The first three symbols tell you the state of matter of the element at room temperature. The fourth symbol identifies elements that are not present in significant amounts on Earth. Useful amounts are made synthetically.

The number in parentheses is the mass number of the longest-lived isotope for that element.

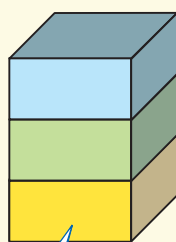
Rows of elements are called periods. Atomic number increases across a period.

The arrow shows where these elements would fit into the periodic table. They are moved to the bottom of the table to save space.

Lanthanide series

Actinide series

Cerium 58 Ce 140.116	Praseodymium 59 Pr 140.908	Neodymium 60 Nd 144.24	Promethium 61 Pm (145)	Samarium 62 Sm 150.36
Thorium 90 Th 232.038	Protactinium 91 Pa 231.036	Uranium 92 U 238.029	Neptunium 93 Np (237)	Plutonium 94 Pu (244)



Metal

Metalloid

Nonmetal

The color of an element's block tells you if the element is a metal, nonmetal, or metalloid.



Visit bookj.msscience.com for updates to the periodic table.

Metalloid

Nonmetal

The color of an element's block tells you if the element is a metal, nonmetal, or metalloid.

Visit bookj.msscience.com for updates to the periodic table.

			13	14	15	16	17	18			
			Boron 5 B 10.811	Carbon 6 C 12.011	Nitrogen 7 N 14.007	Oxygen 8 O 15.999	Fluorine 9 F 18.998	Helium 2 He 4.003			
			Aluminum 13 Al 26.982	Silicon 14 Si 28.086	Phosphorus 15 P 30.974	Sulfur 16 S 32.065	Chlorine 17 Cl 35.453	Neon 10 Ne 20.180			
10	11	12	Nickel 28 Ni 58.693	Copper 29 Cu 63.546	Zinc 30 Zn 65.409	Gallium 31 Ga 69.723	Germanium 32 Ge 72.64	Arsenic 33 As 74.922	Selenium 34 Se 78.96	Bromine 35 Br 79.904	Krypton 36 Kr 83.798
			Palladium 46 Pd 106.42	Silver 47 Ag 107.868	Cadmium 48 Cd 112.411	Indium 49 In 114.818	Tin 50 Sn 118.710	Antimony 51 Sb 121.760	Tellurium 52 Te 127.60	Iodine 53 I 126.904	Xenon 54 Xe 131.293
			Platinum 78 Pt 195.078	Gold 79 Au 196.967	Mercury 80 Hg 200.59	Thallium 81 Tl 204.383	Lead 82 Pb 207.2	Bismuth 83 Bi 208.980	Polonium 84 Po (209)	Astatine 85 At (210)	Radon 86 Rn (222)
			Darmstadtium 110 Ds (281)	Ununium * 111 Uuu (272)	Ununbium * 112 Uub (285)		Ununquadium * 114 Uuq (289)		** 116		** 118

* The names and symbols for elements 111–114 are temporary. Final names will be selected when the elements' discoveries are verified.

** Elements 116 and 118 were thought to have been created. The claim was retracted because the experimental results could not be repeated.

Europium 63 Eu 151.964	Gadolinium 64 Gd 157.25	Terbium 65 Tb 158.925	Dysprosium 66 Dy 162.500	Holmium 67 Ho 164.930	Erbium 68 Er 167.259	Thulium 69 Tm 168.934	Ytterbium 70 Yb 173.04	Lutetium 71 Lu 174.967
Americium 95 Am (243)	Curium 96 Cm (247)	Berkelium 97 Bk (247)	Californium 98 Cf (251)	Einsteinium 99 Es (252)	Fermium 100 Fm (257)	Mendelevium 101 Md (258)	Nobelium 102 No (259)	Lawrencium 103 Lr (262)

Glossary/Glosario

Cómo usar el glosario en español:

1. Busca el término en inglés que desees encontrar.
2. El término en español, junto con la definición, se encuentran en la columna de la derecha.

Pronunciation Key

Use the following key to help you sound out words in the glossary.

a.....back (BAK)
 ay.....day (DAY)
 ah.....father (FAH thur)
 ow.....flower (FLOW ur)
 ar.....car (CAR)
 e.....less (LES)
 ee.....leaf (LEEF)
 ih.....trip (TRIHP)
 i (i + con + e) ..idea (i DEE uh)
 oh.....go (GOH)
 aw.....soft (SAWFT)
 or.....orbit (OR buht)
 oy.....coin (COYN)
 oo.....foot (FOOT)

ew.....food (FEWD)
 yoo.....pure (PYOOR)
 yew.....few (FYEW)
 uh.....comma (CAH muh)
 u (+ con).....rub (RUB)
 sh.....shelf (SHELF)
 ch.....nature (NAY chur)
 g.....gift (GIHFT)
 j.....gem (JEM)
 ing.....sing (SING)
 zh.....vision (VIH zhun)
 k.....cake (KAYK)
 s.....seed, cent (SEED, SENT)
 z.....zone, raise (ZOHN, RAYZ)

English

A

Español

absolute magnitude: measure of the amount of light a star actually gives off. (p. 106)

apparent magnitude: measure of the amount of light from a star that is received on Earth. (p. 106)

asteroid: a piece of rock or metal made up of material similar to that which formed the planets; mostly found in the asteroid belt between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter. (p. 92)

axis: imaginary vertical line that cuts through the center of Earth and around which Earth spins. (p. 41)

magnitud absoluta: medida de la cantidad real de luz que genera una estrella. (p. 106)

magnitud aparente: medida de la cantidad de luz recibida en la Tierra desde una estrella. (p. 106)

asteroide: pedazo de roca o metal formado de material similar al que forma los planetas; se encuentran principalmente en el cinturón de asteroides entre las órbitas de Marte y Júpiter. (p. 92)

eje: línea vertical imaginaria que atraviesa el centro de la Tierra y alrededor de la cual gira ésta. (p. 41)

B

Big Bang theory: states that about 13.7 billion years ago, the universe began with a huge, fiery explosion. (p. 125)

black hole: final stage in the evolution of a very massive star, where the core's mass collapses to a point that its gravity is so strong that not even light can escape. (p. 118)

teoría de la Gran Explosión: establece que hace aproximadamente 13.7 billones de años el universo se originó con una enorme explosión. (p. 125)

agujero negro: etapa final en la evolución de una estrella masiva, en donde la masa del núcleo se colapsa hasta el punto de que su gravedad es tan fuerte que ni siquiera la luz puede escapar. (p. 118)

C

chromosphere: layer of the Sun's atmosphere above the photosphere. (p. 109)

cromosfera: capa de la atmósfera del sol que se encuentra sobre la fotosfera. (p. 109)

comet/Great Red Spot

comet: space object made of dust and rock particles mixed with frozen water, methane, and ammonia that forms a bright coma as it approaches the Sun. (p. 90)

constellation: group of stars that forms a pattern in the sky that looks like a familiar object (Libra), animal (Pegasus), or character (Orion). (p. 104)

corona: outermost, largest layer of the Sun's atmosphere; extends millions of kilometers into space and has temperatures up to 2 million K. (p. 109)

cometa/La Gran Mancha Roja

cometa: objeto espacial formado por partículas de polvo y roca mezcladas con agua congelada, metano y amoníaco que forman una cola brillante cuando se aproxima al sol. (p. 90)

constelación: grupo de estrellas que forma un patrón en el cielo y que semeja un objeto (Libra), un animal (Pegaso) o un personaje familiar (Orión). (p. 104)

corona: capa más externa y más grande de la atmósfera solar; se extiende millones de kilómetros dentro del espacio y tiene una temperatura hasta de 2 millones de grados Kelvin. (p. 109)

E

Earth: third planet from the Sun; has an atmosphere that protects life and surface temperatures that allow water to exist as a solid, liquid, and gas. (p. 78)

electromagnetic spectrum: arrangement of electromagnetic waves according to their wavelengths. (p. 9)

ellipse (ee LIHPS): elongated, closed curve that describes Earth's yearlong orbit around the Sun. (p. 43)

equinox (EE kwuh nahks): twice-yearly time—each spring and fall—when the Sun is directly over the equator and the number of daylight and nighttime hours are equal worldwide. (p. 45)

Tierra: tercer planeta más cercano al sol; tiene una atmósfera que protege la vida y temperaturas en su superficie que permiten la presencia de agua en estado sólido, líquido y gaseoso. (p. 78)

espectro electromagnético: ordenamiento de las ondas electromagnéticas de acuerdo con su longitud de onda. (p. 9)

elipse: curva cerrada y elongada que describe la órbita anual de la Tierra alrededor del sol. (p. 43)

equinoccio: dos veces al año—en primavera y otoño—cuando el sol está posicionado directamente sobre el ecuador y el número de horas del día y de la noche son iguales en todo el mundo. (p. 45)

F

full moon: phase that occurs when all of the Moon's surface facing Earth reflects light. (p. 47)

luna llena: fase que ocurre cuando toda la superficie de la luna frente a la Tierra refleja la luz del sol. (p. 47)

G

galaxy: large group of stars, dust, and gas held together by gravity; can be elliptical, spiral, or irregular. (p. 120)

giant: late stage in the life of comparatively low-mass main sequence star in which hydrogen in the core is depleted, the core contracts and temperatures inside the star increase, causing its outer layers to expand and cool. (p. 117)

Great Red Spot: giant, high-pressure storm in Jupiter's atmosphere. (p. 82)

galaxia: grupo grande de estrellas, polvo y gas en donde todo está unido por gravedad; puede ser elíptica, espiral o irregular. (p. 120)

gigante: etapa tardía en la vida de una estrella de secuencia principal, de relativamente poca masa, en la que el hidrógeno en el núcleo está agotado, el núcleo se contrae y la temperatura en el interior de la estrella aumenta, causando que las capas externas se expandan y enfríen. (p. 117)

La Gran Mancha Roja: tormenta gigante de alta presión en la atmósfera de Júpiter. (p. 82)

Glossary/Glosario

impact basin/nebula

cráter de impacto/nebulosa

I

impact basin: a hollow left on the surface of the Moon caused by an object striking its surface. (p. 57)

cráter de impacto: un hueco dejado en la superficie de la luna causada por un objeto que chocó contra su superficie. (p. 57)

J

Jupiter: largest and fifth planet from the Sun; contains more mass than all the other planets combined, has continuous storms of high-pressure gas, and an atmosphere mostly of hydrogen and helium. (p. 82)

Júpiter: el quinto planeta más cercano al sol, y también el más grande; contiene más masa que todos los otros planetas en conjunto, tiene tormentas continuas de gas a alta presión y una atmósfera compuesta principalmente por hidrógeno y helio. (p. 82)

light-year: unit representing the distance light travels in one year—about 9.5 trillion km—used to record distances between stars and galaxies. (p. 107)

año luz: unidad que representa la distancia que la luz viaja en un año—cerca de 9.5 trillones de kilómetros—usada para registrar las distancias entre las estrellas y las galaxias. (p. 107)

lunar eclipse: occurs when Earth's shadow falls on the Moon. (p. 50)

eclipse lunar: ocurre cuando la sombra de la Tierra cubre la luna. (p. 50)

M

maria (MAHR ee uh): dark-colored, relatively flat regions of the Moon formed when ancient lava reached the surface and filled craters on the Moon's surface. (p. 51)

mares: regiones de la Luna relativamente planas y de color oscuro que se formaron cuando la lava alcanzó la superficie y llenó los cráteres en la superficie lunar. (p. 51)

Mars: fourth planet from the Sun; has polar ice caps, a thin atmosphere, and a reddish appearance caused by iron oxide in weathered rocks and soil. (p. 78)

Marte: cuarto planeta más cercano al sol; tiene casquetes de hielo polar, una atmósfera delgada y una apariencia rojiza causada por el óxido de hierro presente en las rocas y suelo de su superficie. (p. 78)

Mercury: smallest planet, closest to the Sun; does not have a true atmosphere; has a surface with many craters and high cliffs. (p. 76)

Mercurio: el planeta más pequeño y más cercano al sol; no tiene una atmósfera verdadera; tiene una superficie con muchos cráteres y grandes acantilados. (p. 76)

meteor: a meteoroid that burns up in Earth's atmosphere. (p. 91)

meteorito: un meteoritoide que se incinera en la atmósfera de la Tierra. (p. 91)

meteorite: a meteoroid that strikes the surface of a moon or planet. (p. 92)

meteorito: un meteoritoide que choca contra la superficie de la luna o de algún planeta. (p. 92)

moon phase: change in appearance of the Moon as viewed from the Earth, due to the relative positions of the Moon, Earth, and Sun. (p. 47)

fase lunar: cambio en la apariencia de la luna según es vista desde la Tierra; se debe a las posiciones relativas de la luna, la Tierra y el sol. (p. 47)

N

nebula: large cloud of gas and dust that contracts under gravitational force and breaks apart into smaller pieces, each of which might collapse to form a star. (p. 116)

nebulosa: nube grande de polvo y gas que se contrae bajo la fuerza gravitacional y se descompone en pedazos más pequeños, cada uno de los cuales se puede colapsar para formar una estrella. (p. 116)

Neptune/radio telescope

Neptune: usually the eighth planet from the Sun; is large and gaseous, has rings that vary in thickness, and is bluish-green in color. (p. 86)

neutron star: collapsed core of a supernova that can shrink to about 20 km in diameter and contains only neutrons in the dense core. (p. 118)

new moon: moon phase that occurs when the Moon is between Earth and the Sun, at which point the Moon cannot be seen because its lighted half is facing the Sun and its dark side faces Earth. (p. 47)

Neptuno/radiotelescopio

Neptuno: el octavo planeta desde el sol; es grande y gaseoso, tiene anillos que varían en espesor y tiene un color verde-azulado. (p. 86)

estrella de neutrones: núcleo colapsado de una supernova que puede contraerse hasta tener un diámetro de 20 kilómetros y contiene sólo neutrones en su denso núcleo. (p. 118)

luna nueva: fase lunar que ocurre cuando la luna se encuentra entre la Tierra y el sol, punto en el cual la luna no puede verse porque su mitad iluminada está frente al sol y su lado oscuro frente a la Tierra. (p. 47)

O

observatory: building that can house an optical telescope; often has a dome-shaped roof that can be opened for viewing. (p. 10)

orbit: curved path followed by a satellite as it revolves around an object. (p. 17)

observatorio: edificación que puede albergar un telescopio óptico; a menudo tiene un techo en forma de domo que puede abrirse para la observación. (p. 10)

órbita: trayectoria curva seguida por un satélite conforme gira alrededor de un objeto. (p. 17)

P

photosphere: lowest layer of the Sun's atmosphere; gives off light and has temperatures of about 6,000K. (p. 109)

Pluto: considered to be the ninth planet from the Sun; has a solid icy-rock surface and a single moon, Charon. (p. 87)

Project Apollo: final stage in the U.S. program to reach the Moon, in which Neil Armstrong was the first human to step onto the Moon's surface. (p. 22)

Project Gemini: second stage in the U.S. program to reach the Moon, in which an astronaut team connected with another spacecraft in orbit. (p. 21)

Project Mercury: first step in the U.S. program to reach the Moon; orbited a piloted spacecraft around Earth and brought it back safely. (p. 21)

fotosfera: capa más interna de la atmósfera del sol; emite luz y tiene temperaturas de cerca de 6,000 grados Kelvin. (p. 109)

Plutón: considerado como el noveno planeta desde el sol; tiene una superficie sólida de roca congelada y una luna, Caronte. (p. 87)

Proyecto Apollo: etapa final en el proyecto norteamericano para llegar a la luna en el que Neil Armstrong fue el primer ser humano en caminar sobre la superficie lunar. (p. 22)

Proyecto Géminis: segunda etapa del proyecto norteamericano para llegar a la luna en el que un grupo de astronautas se conectó con otra nave espacial en órbita. (p. 21)

Proyecto Mercurio: primera etapa del proyecto norteamericano para llegar a la luna en el que una nave espacial tripulada recorrió la órbita de la Tierra y regresó de manera segura. (p. 21)

R

radio telescope: collects and records radio waves traveling through space; can be used day or night under most weather conditions. (p. 13)

radiotelescopio: recolecta y registra ondas de radio que viajan a través del espacio; puede usarse de día o de noche en la mayoría de condiciones climáticas. (p. 13)

Glossary/Glosario

reflecting telescope/sphere

reflecting telescope: optical telescope that uses a concave mirror to focus light and form an image at the focal point. (p. 10)

refracting telescope: optical telescope that uses a double convex lens to bend light and form an image at the focal point. (p. 10)

revolution: Earth's yearlong elliptical orbit around the Sun. (p. 43)

rocket: special engine that can work in space and burns liquid or solid fuel. (p. 15)

rotation: spinning of Earth on its imaginary axis, which takes about 24 hours to complete and causes day and night to occur. (p. 41)

telescopio reflectante/esfera

telescopio reflectante: telescopio óptico que utiliza un espejo cóncavo para enfocar la luz y formar una imagen en el punto focal. (p. 10)

telescopio de refracción: telescopio óptico que utiliza un lente doble convexo para formar una imagen en el punto focal. (p. 10)

revolución: órbita elíptica de un año de duración que la Tierra recorre alrededor del sol. (p. 43)

cohetes: máquina especial que puede funcionar en el espacio y quema combustible sólido o líquido. (p. 15)

rotación: rotación de la Tierra sobre su eje imaginario, lo cual toma cerca de 24 horas para completarse y causa la alternancia entre el día y la noche. (p. 41)

S

satellite: any natural or artificial object that revolves around another object. (p. 17)

Saturn: second-largest and sixth planet from the Sun; has a complex ring system, at least 31 moons, and a thick atmosphere made mostly of hydrogen and helium. (p. 84)

solar eclipse: occurs when the Moon passes directly between the Sun and Earth and casts a shadow over part of Earth. (p. 49)

solar system: system of nine planets, including Earth, and other objects that revolve around the Sun. (p. 71)

solstice: twice-yearly point at which the Sun reaches its greatest distance north or south of the equator. (p. 44)

space probe: instrument that travels far into the solar system and gathers data to send back to Earth. (p. 18)

space shuttle: reusable spacecraft that can carry cargo, astronauts, and satellites to and from space. (p. 23)

space station: large facility with living quarters, work and exercise areas, and equipment and support systems for humans to live and work in space and conduct research. (p. 24)

sphere (SFIHR): a round, three-dimensional object whose surface is the same distance from its center at all points; Earth is a sphere that bulges somewhat at the equator and is slightly flattened at the poles. (p. 40)

satélite: cualquier objeto natural o artificial que gire alrededor de otro objeto. (p. 17)

Saturno: además de ser el sexto planeta más cercano al sol, también es el segundo en tamaño; tiene un sistema de anillos complejo, por lo menos 31 lunas y una atmósfera gruesa compuesta principalmente de hidrógeno y helio. (p. 84)

eclipse solar: ocurre cuando la luna pasa directamente entre el sol y la Tierra y se genera una sombra sobre una parte de la Tierra. (p. 49)

sistema solar: sistema de nueve planetas, incluyendo a la Tierra y otros objetos que giran alrededor del sol. (p. 71)

solsticio: punto en el cual dos veces al año el sol alcanza su mayor distancia al norte o al sur del ecuador. (p. 44)

sonda espacial: instrumento que viaja grandes distancias en el sistema solar, recopila datos y los envía a la Tierra. (p. 18)

trasbordador espacial: nave espacial reutilizable que puede llevar carga, astronautas y satélites hacia y desde el espacio. (p. 23)

estación espacial: instalación grande con áreas para hospedarse, trabajar y hacer ejercicio; tiene equipos y sistemas de apoyo para que los seres humanos vivan, trabajen y lleven a cabo investigaciones en el espacio. (p. 24)

esfera: un objeto tridimensional y redondo donde cualquier punto de su superficie está a la misma distancia del centro; la Tierra es una esfera algo abultada en el ecuador y ligeramente achatada en los polos. (p. 40)

sunspots/white dwarf

sunspots: areas on the Sun's surface that are cooler and less bright than surrounding areas, are caused by the Sun's magnetic field, and occur in cycles. (p. 110)

supergiant: late stage in the life cycle of a massive star in which the core heats up, heavy elements form by fusion, and the star expands; can eventually explode to form a supernova. (p. 119)

manchas solares/enana blanca

manchas solares: áreas en la superficie solar que son más frías y menos brillantes que las áreas circundantes, son causadas por el campo magnético solar y ocurren en ciclos. (p. 110)

supergigante: etapa tardía en el ciclo de vida de una estrella masiva en la que el núcleo se calienta, se forman elementos pesados por fusión y la estrella se expande; eventualmente puede explotar para formar una supernova. (p. 119)

U

Uranus (YOOR uh nus): seventh planet from the Sun; is large and gaseous, has a distinct bluish-green color, and rotates on an axis nearly parallel to the plane of its orbit. (p. 85)

Urano: séptimo planeta desde el sol; es grande y gaseoso, tiene un color verde-azulado distintivo y gira sobre un eje casi paralelo al plano de su órbita. (p. 85)

V

Venus: second planet from the Sun; similar to Earth in mass and size; has a thick atmosphere and a surface with craters, faultlike cracks, and volcanoes. (p. 77)

Venus: segundo planeta más cercano al sol; similar a la Tierra en masa y tamaño; tiene una atmósfera gruesa y una superficie con cráteres, grietas similares a fallas y volcanes. (p. 77)

W

waning: describes phases that occur after a full moon, as the visible lighted side of the Moon grows smaller. (p. 48)

waxing: describes phases following a new moon, as more of the Moon's lighted side becomes visible. (p. 48)

white dwarf: late stage in the life cycle of a comparatively low-mass main sequence star; formed when its core depletes its helium and its outer layers escape into space, leaving behind a hot, dense core. (p. 118)

menguante: describe las fases posteriores a la luna llena, de manera que el lado iluminado de la luna es cada vez menos visible. (p. 48)

creciente: describe las fases posteriores a la luna nueva, de manera que el lado iluminado de la luna es cada vez más visible. (p. 48)

enana blanca: etapa tardía en el ciclo de vida de una estrella de secuencia principal, de relativamente poca masa, formada cuando el núcleo agota su helio y sus capas externas escapan al espacio, dejando atrás un núcleo denso y caliente. (p. 118)

Italic numbers = illustration/photo **Bold numbers = vocabulary term**
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LM—Light Microscope

SEM—Scanning Electron Microscope

TEM—Transmission Electron Microscope

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